The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 28, 1892.

The Week.

WITHIN a week a fresh crop of rumors has sprung up in Washington touching a new international conference on the silver question. These rumors have been published in London, where they are received with much incredulity. The *Times* of that city considers Mr. Harrison's rumored negotiations on this subject "an obviously evasive and illusory attempt to temporize with the soft-money partisans." It sees no prospect of any international agreement or any improvement of the silver market, and it looks upon Mr. Goschen's expression of a desire for an enlarged use of silver as productive of more harm than good. Other English journals have expressed doubt whether there is any real ground for supposing that a new conference will be held. Until some official statement is made, no credence can be given to these reports. Yet there are obvious reasons why the Administration should desire to have a conference this year, or at all events have a hopeful negotiation on foot looking towards one. This would be a political advantage because it would put an end, for the time, to all intestine party disagreements such as those broached by Senator Teller last week. Everybody would be constrained to wait till the conference was ended before taking any step to form new alliances. In fact, Mr. Teller himself has moved for such a conference in the Senate and Mr. Lodge has moved for it in the House—these two representing the opposite extremes in the party. There is also a certain amount of international-conference feeling among the Democrats, but it is not among the free-coinage men. The Bland faction have always regarded international action as a subterfuge and a makeshift to gain time. They would not reject a conference—indeed, the Bland Bill has a clause in it looking to an agreement *after* we adopt free coinage. But they insist that our action shall not be contingent on that of any other country. Nevertheless, the actual pendency of an international conference would give them pause. It would enforce silence upon them during the interval. So the movement for a conference, if there is really one on foot, may be regarded as a temporary relief to the politicians on both sides.

When we look at practical results, we can discern nothing hopeful. Two facts militate always against a bimetallic agreement. One is, that all the governments on earth cannot prevent gold and silver from selling according to their respective costs of production. The other is, that the governments can never trust each other to the extent of believing that they will live up to the agreement. The agreement requires a mutual sacrifice of pecuniary interests to the common good. It is not an agreement which can be carried out by powder and ball or by chains and dungeons. It requires for its efficient execution the assent of all private individuals within the territorial scope of the treaty. It requires that the preference of people for gold over silver shall cease. But everybody knows that it will not cease at the bidding of a law passed by any number of governments. No government could enforce bimetallism on its own subjects beyond the settlement of contracts already in existence. As to all future bargains, the people's preference for gold over silver would find its way as easily and surely as their preference for potatoes over turnips. Knowledge of this elementary fact will always prevent the governments from trusting each other to enforce bimetallism.

The silverites contribute to the gayety of nations from time to time, and nobody is more diligent in this way than Senator Teller. In his speech on Wednesday week (the speech in which he warned the Republican party to beware of Colorado, Nevada, Idaho, and Montana), he gave a piece of his mind about Great Britain. The subject to which he was particularly directing his thought was the advantage that India gains as an exporter of wheat by having a depreciated currency. Senator Higgins of Delaware asked whether the construction of railways in India might not also have had considerable influence in promoting the export of wheat. Then the following colloquy took place:

> Mr. Teller—A Senator asks me where they got the money with which to build the railroads. Great Britain built the railroads for them.
>
> Mr. Stewart—And charged it to them.
>
> Mr. Teller—Of course India is paying for them. The financial policy of Great Britain has been to *never pay anything out to anybody where she does not get a full equivalent back.*

This financial policy is in marked contrast to that of the universal Yankee nation, otherwise Mr. Teller would not have referred to it in such severe terms. *Our* policy is to pay our money without getting anything like a full equivalent back. Yet when Mr. Blaine pointed out that we were losing $45,000,000 per annum in trading with Brazil, he did not speak of it in terms of admiration at all. On the contrary, he contended that we ought to do just as Great Britain does, namely, "get a full equivalent back"; and to this end he negotiated a treaty of reciprocity with Brazil, which has not had much effect except to show his earnest desire to recover some part of the $45,000,000.

The *modus vivendi* respecting Bering Sea provides that both Governments shall prohibit seal-killing by their subjects during the pendency of the arbitration. Article 7 provides that the agreement shall be ratified by the President, "by and with the advice and consent of the Senate," a formality which was dispensed with last year. This is a tacit acknowledgment of the illegality of last year's arrangement on our part. There was no law last year prohibiting American citizens from taking seals in Bering Sea beyond the three-mile limit. But a treaty duly ratified is a part of the supreme law of the land, and is binding on all the States and the citizens thereof. We congratulate President Harrison on his improved *modus vivendi.*

The rejection of the barbarous Anti-Chinese Bill in the Senate by the large majority of 43 to 14 is a pleasing omen, and we cannot allow it to pass without a word of thanks to Senator Sherman for his strong speech in condemnation of the measure, and especially for the high grounds on which his opposition to it was based. He said that this bill exceeded, in severity and in denial of the ordinary rights of humanity, any bill that was probably ever introduced into the Congress of the United States. With the exception of the old Fugitive Slave Law, this was undoubtedly a correct description. Before examining the "worse than Draconian code" sent over by the House, Mr. Sherman showed from the census reports that the Chinese population in California had actually decreased 4½ per cent. in the past ten years, the number now being 3,451 less than it was in 1880, and hence that these severe measures were unnecessary for the purpose of checking Chinese immigration. This fact staggered the Pacific Coast Senators, particularly Mr. Mitchell of Oregon, who had discovered from his inner consciousness that the number of Chinese in the whole country had largely increased. Mr. Mitchell was quite sure that if the number of Chinese in California had decreased, it was because there had been an overflow from that State all the time. The peculiarity of this cup is that the less there is in it, the more it over flows. Mr. Sherman dissected the bill carefully and exposed its shocking provisions thoroughly. Such a service deserves public recognition.

The bill pending before the Senate which requires the accounting officers of the Treasury to reopen all claims settled under a construction of law subsequently declared by the Supreme Court of the United States to be erroneous, and to adjust them in accordance with the law as construed by the Court, not only involves an immense expenditure of money, but is wholly indefensible in principle. When the Court of Claims was established in 1863, all claims against the Government

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which had then accrued, if they belonged to any of the classes over which that Court was given jurisdiction, could have been presented to it for adjudication. Those whose demands have originated since 1863 have been treated with the greatest liberality. Every avenue that could be devised has been open to them. A simple, inexpensive, and easy mode of redress exists in the Treasury. Failing to secure a favorable decision from the Comptrollers, claimants have been permitted to file their petitions in the Court of Claims at any time within six years from the accrual of their demands, notwithstanding their previous voluntary submission to the decision of the Treasury. If these demands have remained so long unadjudicated in the Treasury that the six-year statute of limitations blocks their way to the court, another remedy remains. The head of the Department may—notwithstanding the adverse decision of the accounting officers—refer the demands to the Court for decision, the statute of limitation not running in such cases for the period during which the demands may have been pending before the Department. To go further and reopen all claims, however old, just because it has been discovered in a suit brought many years afterwards by some person who did not sleep on his rights, that they were improperly settled by the accounting officers, is liberality run mad.

Such a bill as this would never have been dreamed of if we had, as many governments have, a class of eminent magistrates, holding office by a permanent tenure, charged with the duty of hearing and determining claims against the public. From the beginning the Federal Auditors and Comptrollers have occupied an anomalous position. Vested with judicial functions, and yet holding office during the pleasure of the President, they have exercised their brief authority without printed precedents or the arguments of counsel to guide them, and gone out of office upon every change of administration, followed by the curses of claimants and claim agents whose clamor they had withstood, to be succeeded by other temporary officers whose chief employment consists in overturning what they tried to establish. It would be more economical to the nation, more just to claimants, and more respectful to the Treasury officers themselves, to change the whole system.

There can be no question that the stealing of a seat in Congress on Friday for Mr. Rockwell, who comes from the home district of Senator Hill, was a Hill victory. All the Hill organs are justified, therefore, in claiming it as their triumph and in crowing over it lustily. We think they are quite right, also, in hailing it as a "Cleveland defeat." Every triumph of that kind in Democratic politics has come to be looked upon in all quarters as a rebuff to Mr. Cleveland, and it is one of the many tributes to his character that this is the case. He has never been an exponent of the kind of politics which finds its highest development in stealing seats in legislative bodies, or in extracting legal election returns from the public files in order that illegal ones may be used to put men in office who have failed of election by the people. The "Hill victory" in Congress was of precisely the same character as the series of Hill victories by which he and Tammany gained control of the State Senate. Mr. Rockwell had no legal right to the seat which has been awarded him by the narrow majority of 15 votes in a House which has a Democratic majority of 150. His claim to the seat was denied by the Democratic majority of the Elections Committee, on the ground that Noyes had a majority of the votes as returned under the laws of the State, whereas Rockwell's certificate was based upon a recount. The law of New York does not authorize a recount of votes, but expressly provides that after the count has been made the ballots shall be destroyed. He would have been rejected by the House had not the Hill-Tammany combine, which elected Mr. Crisp Speaker, made a determined fight for his retention. They are as jubilant over their victory as they were over the theft of the New York Senate and the success of the snap Convention, and it is likely to do them about as much good as those remarkable achievements did.

Senator Quay, following in the footsteps of the "Hon." Richard Croker, is permitted to set forth in the pages of the *North American Review* his views upon the subject: "The Man or the Platform; Personality or Principle—Which is More Potent in National Politics?" We have not read these "views," and we doubt very much if any intelligent person will care to peruse them, for the simple reason that every such person knows that Quay cares nothing for either Personality or Principle, Man or Platform, but believes in "boodle" as the only "potent" influence in national politics. If he were to write on that subject, were to tell what he knows from experience of the achievements of "boodle" in carrying elections, it would be worth while to pay him for the article and well worth everybody's while to read it when printed. If, for example, he were to write a truthful narrative, sustained by vouchers and other documents, of the uses to which he put the great corruption fund that Wanamaker raised for him in the closing days of the Harrison campaign of 1888, it would be a wise, economic, and public-spirited act for the *North American Review* to pay him for it the largest price ever given for a magazine article, for it would be an object-lesson in political morality the like of which this country had never beheld. On that phase of a national campaign he is an unquestioned authority, but on "Personality or Principle" he is as disgusting a spectacle as Satan in a pulpit.

The Massachusetts Republicans have adopted a resolution declaring "the right of every voter to cast his vote and have it honestly counted a fundamental principle of our Government"; and the Pennsylvania Republicans, after announcing their "belief in a free ballot and a fair count," affirmed that, "unless intelligent and patriotic sentiment accord these rights to the humblest citizen in every section of the country, it becomes the duty of the Federal Government to secure them by Congressional enactment under the authority conferred by the Constitution." This, of course, means endorsement of the Force Bill. But another announcement regarding that measure was made at the Capitol which is of much more importance. Senator Teller of Colorado, in his late speech on the silver question, said:

> "I have read that bill with care and attention more than twenty times. I have read it in the light of calm consideration. And I repeat now that if it were presented to me now, with the alternative of party support or party dismissal, I should not vote for the bill. A more infamous bill, in my judgment, never passed the threshold of the doors of the Senate. Avowedly in the interest of good government, it was instigated, in my judgment, by men whose interest it was to prevent a free expression of the will of the voters at the polls."

Mr. Teller's colleague, Mr. Wolcott, is equally outspoken against the Force Bill, and there are other Republican Senators whose votes can be counted upon against it. Whatever may be the result of the Presidential election, there is good reason to hope that the Force Bill can never get through Congress.

The action of the Indiana Democratic State Convention on Thursday shows how irresistible the Cleveland movement in the party has become. Indiana was supposed to have a "favorite son" in the person of ex-Gov. Gray, and the usual attempts were made to invoke in his behalf the spirit of "State pride," but it was all of no avail. The feeling among the people in favor of Cleveland was so overwhelming that the Convention adopted a resolution endorsing his Administration, insisting that the approaching campaign should be conducted on the issue of tariff reform as defined in his famous message, and declaring him upon this issue "the logical candidate of the Democratic party." The most that poor Gray's friends could extort from the Convention was an expression of "unalterable confidence in and attachment to" him, and an instruction to the delegation to use every honorable effort to secure his nomination in case the National Convention should deem the nomination of Cleveland inadvisable. As nobody longer expects the latter contingency, this is the same thing as bowing Gray one side; and the ex-Governor must be a man of very cheerful temperament to extract much satisfaction from his treatment at the hands of his fellow-citizens.

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The ingratitude which Tom Platt is showing to President Harrison at the present time is the basest in the history of modern politics. He is openly jeering at him and is "fixing" a delegation from this State to the National Convention which will, if Platt so desires, throw its vote against Harrison. What his motive is, nobody knows, of course, but there are several plausible theories in explanation of his conduct floating about in political circles. One is, that Platt, like Quay, is "striking" Harrison for terms, serving notice on him that if he desires a renomination, he must pay the price which the party bosses demand for it. Another theory is, that while Harrison gave Platt all the patronage of New York State after his election, leaving poor Warner Miller prostrate and destitute "outside the breastworks," he refused Platt's chief demand, to wit, the Secretaryship of the Treasury, and that Platt has never forgiven him for this refusal, and is now "getting even." We give both theories for what they are worth, having no means of deciding between them. Both may be erroneous, but, whether this be so or not, there is no question as to the heartless ingratitude of Platt. It has no parallel save in Harrison's ingratitude towards Warner Miller.

Col. McClure of the Philadelphia *Times* made an interesting address at the annual meeting of the Civil-Service Reform Association of that city on Thursday evening. Among other things he referred to the extraordinary growth in the use of money in elections during the last thirty years. The report in the *Ledger* says:

> "He gave a history of the campaign of 1860, in which he was Chairman of the State Republican Executive Committee, when a great party had to be crystallized into being and the State carried in October in order to defeat the party in power and to insure the election of Abraham Lincoln in November. How much money, he asked, do you suppose was expended? The entire contribution for the campaign was $12,000, out of which $2,000 was paid for rent and $3,000 for printing, leaving but $7,000 with which to organize the victory that was won. No money was needed for other than honest purposes. Political debauchery was a thing unthought of. We were certainly a great party. To-day take any one of your political masters—he will require more money to elect a Councilman in a little ward. Men are invited to battle now solely for the spoils."

Discouraging as this contrast is, Col. McClure pointed out the hopeful aspect of the situation in the fact that civil-service reform has already passed the stage of ridicule, and that "any Administration, if it does not advance in this direction, dare take no step backward. We are very near to-day," he added, "to the point that no man can be dismissed from office for political reasons, and the time is coming when the leading candidates of both parties must declare in favor of civil-service reform."

The report as to the working of woman suffrage in the Kansas municipal elections this spring, just made by the President of the Equal Suffrage Association, indicates that there has been no falling off in interest on the part of the sex. This is the "off year" for such elections, as in many cities only a part of the officials are chosen, but in such cities the woman vote was as large as in the last corresponding year. In four places the woman vote exceeded the male, and in a number of the smaller towns—or "cities," as they call them out there—the women cast this year a larger vote than ever before. Women seem to be exerting more influence all the time in the matter of making nominations. It is more common for them to be invited to caucuses and primaries. In Newton they were the first to stir in regard to holding caucuses, and twice as many women were present as men. A number of women were elected to the school boards, and women are appointed very frequently as city clerks and city treasurers.

We have received a copy of the circular of H. R. De Milt & Co. of this city, for April, 1892, saying that they have in store and for sale the first American pig tin ever brought to this market. The first paragraph of the circular says that this pig tin "is now produced in this country in commercial quantity." A subsequent paragraph requests "that orders be limited to one or two pigs," on account of the smallness of the present supply. The rather superfluous remark is added that "the price is same as for the foreign." Of course people are not going to buy this tin in a commercial way at higher prices than the foreign. Probably many people who receive this circular will be led to believe that the Temescal tin-mine in California has been brought to its present state of productiveness (whatever that may be) by a good stiff duty on pig tin. It should be remarked for the instruction of such that pig tin is now and has been for twenty years on the free list, and that there can be no duty on it before July 1, 1893. Whether there shall be any then will depend upon whether the present law remains in force until that time. If it does, there will be a duty of four cents per pound on pig tin for two years, which will inure to the benefit of the English company which owns the Temescal mine. At the end of the two years (*i. e.*, July 1, 1895), the President of the United States is to determine whether there has been produced within the United States more than "5,000 tons of cassiterite and bar, block, and pig tin" within a single year. If so, the duty is to remain in force. If not, the article goes back to the free list where it is now, and the English company ceases to get its bounty.

The financial situation of the Argentine Republic was the subject of a vigorous and able article in the first number of the *Investor's Review*, the new English quarterly under the editorship of Mr. A. J. Wilson. Written by him, the article in question maintained that the so-called "moratorium"—or suspension of interest for three years—was the worst possible way of dealing with the Argentine difficulty; it was a virtual admission on the part of the creditors, he argued, that Argentina was bankrupt, and could not even pay a reduced interest. Mr. Wilson thought that the Argentines would not need to be told twice that they were able to pay nothing, but would be found very ready in taking that view of the case at the end of their three years of grace. Moreover, he argued on the basis of the cold figures that the country would not be able to "fulfil its engagements under the *moratorio* compact and resume the complete service of the public debt in December, 1893." For the expression of this opinion Mr. Wilson is to be proceeded against legally by the Argentine Government, so it is stated, though it is not made clear exactly how. But if the Government is so eager to prove itself solvent at the cost of some incredulous writer, we should say it ought to try its hand upon the editor of the Buenos Ayres *Standard*. That paper, commenting upon the announcement of the suit against Mr. Wilson, said: "It is manifestly impossible for Argentina to set aside from December, 1893, an annual sum of $19,500,000 gold, since that would be 90 per cent. of the total revenue."

A curious phase of the Anarchistic activity in France has been the outbreak, in what appears to be a prearranged and systematic form, of disturbances in churches. These seem to have been particularly planned for any date when it was known that a sermon was to be preached on social questions. Large numbers of Anarchists or wanton disturbers of the peace would gather in the body of the church, and drown the preacher's voice by loud outcries, smash the chairs and chandeliers, and make the continuance of the service impossible. Beginning in the churches of Paris, these outrages quickly spread to the provinces, and took on peculiarly scandalous forms at Marseilles and Nancy. At Beauvais, a priest who was discoursing on the apparently harmless subject of Sunday rest, was compelled to break off because he had something to say about social order and obedience to the laws. The authorities long showed themselves strangely indifferent to these disorders. In some cases, no doubt, they thought that the populace were simply taking into their own hands that clause of the Penal Code which forbids a minister of any religion to criticise a law or decree of the Government; but another clause of the same code makes it a criminal offence to break up a religious service, or to foment disorder or utter threats in any church building. Latterly, however, this form of anarchy has been taken vigorously in hand by the police. Had it been allowed to go much further, the churches must have been closed.

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THE SENATE AND THE ARIZONA FUNDING BILL.

THE debate and action of the Senate on the Arizona Funding Bill deserves rather more attention than has been given to it. In fact, there has hardly ever been a more painful exhibition of downright, unblushing demagogism in that body than was presented on this occasion. It should be known at the outset that the Arizona Funding Bill, gold clause and all, was passed by the last Congress without a dissenting vote in the Senate, and that the present bill was merely to change the period of the interest payments, making them semi-annual instead of annual. It is customary in this kind of legislation to take the Territorial law, preface it with a few words, saying that Congress approves and confirms the same, and then pass it. This was done with the Arizona Funding Law in 1890, the third section containing these words:

"Said bonds shall bear interest at a rate to be fixed by said Loan Commissioners, but in no case to exceed 5 per cent. per annum, *which interest shall be paid in gold coin*, or its equivalent in lawful money of the United States, on the 15th day of January in each year."

This measure was approved and confirmed by Congress, and became a law on the 25th of June, 1890, without any question being raised as to the kind of money that the interest was payable in. Hence, when Senator Stewart the other day expressed the fear that the "gold combination" or the "Gold Trust"—he used both phrases—would make use of this bill to show that the people of Arizona are opposed to silver, he expressed a quite needless fear. If the gold combination wish to avail themselves of this omen, they can find it ready to their hand on page 175, volume 26, of the Statutes of the United States. The present bill was, as has been said, merely to amend the section in which the foregoing words occur so as to make the interest payable semi-annually. Then the scramble began.

Senator Stewart said that he was willing to allow the people of Arizona to manage their own affairs in their own way (just as he manages his when he takes any bills receivable), but, when Senator Kyle of South Dakota offered an amendment changing the words "gold coin" to "lawful money," he (Stewart) went back on his word and voted for it. Senator Peffer was "opposed to changing the tenor and spirit of the laws of the United States at anybody's request, except at the request of the people themselves"—from which it might appear that he was opposed to changing the law which now stands on page 175, vol. 26, United States Statutes, except at the request of the people of Arizona. But what he meant was exactly the contrary of this. He meant that he was in favor of changing that law against the express desire of the people concerned.

Senator Palmer of Illinois expressed in a moderate way his opinion that the Kyle amendment was an attempt to meddle with other people's private affairs. If the people of Arizona wanted to borrow money in a certain way and on certain terms, they had a right to do so, and the presumption was that they knew their own business and could manage it better than anybody else could manage it for them. Senator Daniel (Democrat of the Old Dominion) could not agree to any such levelling doctrine as that. There had evidently been a speech on the silver question growing in his head, and the quiet remark of Palmer had the effect of the axe that clove the skull of Jupiter when Minerva was ready to be born. The speech sprang out without more ceremony. Here is a sample of it:

"Gentlemen sometimes say that gold is of a value which supports itself. It does not support itself. The gold bullion is always equal to the gold dollar, because the law will always turn it, at the expense of the whole people of the United States, into a gold dollar at any one's request."

This shows what a tremendous mistake the exporters of gold make when they ask for gold bars instead of coin. It shows, also, how the Senate erred in passing a law a year or two ago putting a premium on gold bars over gold coin at the Treasury.

Senator Pugh of Alabama backed up Mr. Daniel with some equally conclusive observations, saying among other things that 'we should not ratify a contract which shows on its face that it is contrary to the expressed public policy of the United States. You cannot legalize a contract that is against public policy." Here we might again ask whether anything is to be inferred as to the public policy of the United States on this question, from the law of June 25, 1890, already quoted, for which, presumably, Senator Pugh himself voted. We understand that a contract was made by the authorities of Arizona for the sale of $1,200,000 of these gold-interest bonds to one of the large life-insurance companies of this city before the vote was taken on this Kyle amendment. The contract, having been made under a valid existing law, will undoubtedly be held good by the courts, notwithstanding Mr. Pugh's notion that it is in conflict with public policy.

The simple fact that the laws of this country, as construed and affirmed repeatedly by the highest tribunal, authorize the making of contracts payable in gold coin, or in pig iron, or in anything the parties agree to, was not brought to the attention of the Senate, although none could have been ignorant of it. Legal-tender laws are important only where no particular mode or thing is specified in the contract. Then the law interprets the word dollar, necessarily. Now, was it not a shame that the Senate of the United States should deny to the Territory of Arizona a privilege which every citizen exercises, and which even a foreigner may exercise here under the protection of our laws and our courts—that of making a contract payable in gold? While this low-toned debate was going on, Senator Carey of Wyoming said that the Delegate of Arizona in the House had just told him that the bill would be of no use to his people if the Kyle amendment was adopted. Nevertheless it was adopted by 28 to 24, and the privilege of saving $75,000 per annum for twenty years was denied to Arizona in order that twenty-eight Senators might put on airs and pander to an ignorance which they secretly despise.

NEW ENGLAND'S DUMB VOTE.

THERE is no subject more fascinating or more important in its bearing on free institutions than the voting impulse of the citizen. To measure, if possible, its energies, to see how far it expresses itself at elections, how it shows itself in the returns of the votes, and what classes respond to it or do not respond, is, in a sense, to test the average of patriotism as we can test it in no other way. This fact gives a special meaning to the first census returns on "voting strength," which have just been sent out for New England. They cover a region which is not only one of the oldest and wealthiest, but in which the standards of public education are supposed to be highest, where civic duties, including the franchise, have been most sedulously inculcated, and where, at the same time, the problem of assimilating native and foreigner has been, perhaps, most complex. There, as in no other part of the United States, the purest American stock has had to meet the onset of immigration under peculiar civic and economic conditions which make the "suffrage test," in most of its phases, extremely significant, especially now, after most of the old New England restrictions on the suffrage have been abolished.

Taking simply the face of the census returns for males of voting age, we get some vivid contrasts when we compare them with the highest recorded votes at elections in the New England States. Maine returns 201,241 male residents of voting age. Her highest vote—at the State election of 1888—was 144,087, or a little less than three-quarters of her male population of voting age. The corresponding figures for New Hampshire are 118,135 and 90,819; for Vermont, 101,697 and 65,153; for Massachusetts, 665,009 and 344,448; for Rhode Island, 100,017 and 54,746; and for Connecticut, 224,092 and 153,978. The figures for all New England are for males of voting age 1,410,191, as compared with what we find to be the highest recorded vote at elections of 853,231. That is to say, the most fiercely contested elections in New England have thus far succeeded in bringing out only about eight actual votes from fourteen persons of voting age, qualified and disqualified. To put the case differently, about six potential or actual voters out of each fourteen form in practice no part of the voting constituency of New England, and either have or take no share in shaping the control of nation, State, or minor civil divisions. Were we to take ordinary instead

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of the highest election returns, the showing would be much worse.

But let us allow for certain disqualifications, so as to find, if possible, the real number of electors in New England, including those who can be made electors, but refuse the franchise. The actual disqualification for crime, pauperism, and insanity is so small that it may be ignored. An important factor, however, must be subtracted to represent foreign-born males over twenty-one who have not yet been in New England long enough to be naturalized. They can be ascertained approximately by finding the proportion of adult male immigrants coming in during the five years from 1885 to 1890, as derived from the Federal immigration tables. In regard to another factor, the number disqualified by Connecticut's "reading test" for new voters probably does not exceed 2 per cent., so commonly is the law hocus-pocussed by the local boards before whom the new voters are made. As to Massachusetts, where reading the English language and writing the name of the applicant are prescribed as tests of would-be voters, the number of about 50,000 which we derive as an estimate based on the census tables of 1880 for illiteracy is a very liberal allowance for the disqualifying force of the provision. Making all these corrections, we are able to construct the following table, in which, under the term "eligible to vote," are included foreigners who refuse naturalization, the figures of the table, except those for percentage, representing thousands:

	Eligible to vote.	Highest vote.	Not voting.	Per cent. not voting.
Maine	197	144	53	27
New Hampshire	112	91	21	19
Vermont	100	65	35	35
Massachusetts	568	344	224	39
Rhode Island	93	55	38	41
Connecticut	211	154	57	27
New England	1,281	853	428	33

The proportions indicate that, out of the whole number of men in New England who are voters already or who can become voters if they wish, almost exactly one-third do not seek the ballot. They avail themselves of civic protection and public conveniences without accepting the civic responsibilities of the franchise. Politically speaking, one-third are thus "carried" by the other two-thirds. The only legitimate subtraction to be made from the impressive figures is the votes of men whom at each election sickness or other imperative necessity keeps from the polls—not a very large number if the voting obligation is strictly regarded. In the case of New England it may also be stated that the obstinacy with which large numbers of the factory class of British immigrants and of French Canadians have clung to their old nationality doubtless emphasizes the showing without at all impairing its political significance.

Some of the details of the table are worth examining. Connecticut naturalizes more of her adult foreign-born males than any other New England State, namely, 49.39 per cent. Yet her largest vote (in 1888) of 153,978 fell about 57,000 short of her full possible vote, and her registration in 1890 of 163,746 falls about 47,254 short of it. The latter number apparently refuse even to be made voters in Connecticut. The traditional "dumb" vote of Massachusetts appears in her 224,000 and 39 per cent. of non-voters, even after her educational qualification is allowed for liberally. New Hampshire has long been famous for the large proportion which her vote bears to her whole population, rising in one year (1888) to a ratio of almost one to four; yet even she has a "dumb" vote of 19 per cent., while Rhode Island at the recent election, when both parties put forth their utmost efforts, fell 41 per cent. below the number which apparently might have been put on her voting lists. How largely the dumb vote is made up in New England of foreign elements is to be shown by figures partly derived from the census, indicating that in Maine there are 11,208 immigrants who refuse to be naturalized after being five years in the country; in New Hampshire, 7,249; in Vermont, 7,434; in Massachusetts, 71,032, not excluding, however, those disqualified by the educational test; in Rhode Island, 12,824; and in Connecticut, not allowing for the farcical "reading" test, 27,819. In all New England there are about 127,566 adult foreign-born males who refuse naturalization and the assumption of the duties of citizenship. A curious commentary are these numbers, as well as the magnitude of the dumb electorate, on the ability of party machinery to "get out the vote" even when that machinery is worked with its highest vigor.

How far is this "dumb" vote of New England made up of the wealthy and educated class of "pure" natives, who have the greatest interests to be protected by the franchise, yet flout it? The question manifestly cannot be answered accurately by figures. Yet the New England politicians, the Republican politicians especially, tell us ever and again of the increasing difficulty with which they get out the "gilt-edged" vote, and of its growing indifference to the ballot. On that ground, too, coupled with "Mugwump" defection, the same politicians try to palliate "boodle" campaigns and their appeals to the prejudices of the immigrants. It is a point on which our figures cannot throw clear light, but as to which they have very sinister and discomforting suggestion.

THE EUROPEAN EXPLOSIONS.

THE French and Spaniards are busy dealing with what is probably the most difficult police problem that has ever been presented to civilized communities. The explosion of dynamite bombs continues in both countries in spite of all the efforts of the police, and is in France apparently demoralizing the officers of justice. It is said that the judges, even, are making all sorts of excuses to avoid sitting at the trial of Ravachol, and landlords are getting chary of renting apartments to officials connected with the administration of justice. It appears, too, that the difficulties of detection are very great, owing to the ease with which explosives of extraordinary power are now made, the smallness of explosive packages compared with their destructiveness, and the facility with which the criminals get away by using clockwork or slow-matches. The Spanish Cortes has had a narrow escape from much more complete destruction than that with which Guy Fawkes threatened James I. and his Parliament, and, according to the latest revelations, the assassination of the little King was part of the same conspiracy. In England a dynamite conspiracy, for the general destruction of property, has also been discovered, and the chief members have been sent to the penitentiary for long terms; but it is not likely that this particular kind of criminal will give much trouble in that country. General hatred of the social organization is very rare in any of the British Isles. Discontent, both in Ireland and England, has often found expression in murder, or in the destruction of property, but it has always been as an expression of hostility to a particular class on account of a particular grievance—in Ireland, high rents, "land-grabbing," or some sort of landlord oppression; in England, labor troubles with farmers or manufacturers.

The Continental dynamiters are, on the other hand, either common criminals who work mischief for mischief's sake or to provide opportunities for robbery, or else people who are hostile to the whole social organization—Anarchists, as they call themselves—that is, people who are opposed to all government, to property, and to marriage, and want a general dissolution of the social bond, in the belief that if there were plenty of good things lying about without owners, they would get a larger share than they have now. These, of course, form a comparatively small body in any country, but the bombs afford them means of terrorizing the community so effective as to make up for the smallness of their numbers. They are likely to give a great deal of trouble, and to be pursued with increasing ferocity, but it will probably be a long while before they are completely extirpated. They have got hold of a weapon which bears about the same relation to the old assassin's dagger or pistol as a magazine rifle to a bow and arrows, and their complete suppression will task the ingenuity of modern police to the uttermost.

Who is responsible for their existence? or are they simply an embodiment of natural depravity? Well, of course, nobody is completely to blame for them, but it is

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quite safe to say that the growth of anarchical doctrines in classes not actually criminal—that is, not driven into crime by laziness or greed—has been greatly stimulated by the preaching of the modern school of philanthropists, who hold "Society" responsible for every individual's poverty and vice and crime. The extent to which this has been done during the last twenty-five years by a certain class of clergymen and philanthropists would astonish the world if their sermons, addresses, articles, and manifestoes could be got together. It is not many years since a Boston philanthropist made a speech to the young criminals on Deer Island, in which he completely absolved them from all responsibility for their offences, and took it on himself and other decent people who had not fallen into the hands of the police. It was "Society," he said, which had got them into trouble, and he was himself, consequently, almost ashamed to look them in the face. Instead of their having to ask pardon of the State, it was the State that should ask pardon of them. This view, with a little mixture of the automaton theory of certain physiologists, which makes man a self-acting machine, has spread all over the Continent, and is acting on the poor like subtle poison on the human body. That it is largely responsible for the present Anarchist attacks on property and order, we have very little doubt. The Anarchists cannot go wrong in their work of destruction, because everything that society considers valuable has been obtained by cheating, and why should they wish to build up another social organization when the present one has turned out so badly?

If the present crisis does anything towards bringing the clerical philanthropists and the humanitarian economists to their senses, and brings home to them the tremendous force with which their attacks on individual responsibility act on the ignorant, the half-taught, the unsuccessful, and the vicious, it will do a world of good, even if it cost us a great many bridges and public buildings. To go much further with the doctrine that all unsuccessful and poor people are entitled to treat their condition as the fault of our civilization, is to put our civilization in peril. This civilization may be, and doubtless is, very faulty, but, like the human race, it is the only one we have got, and it has taken 5,000 years to build it up. Nobody has any other ready to put in its place, and the supply of skins of wild animals for clothing is short and grows shorter.

PROFESSOR FROUDE.

THE appointment of Mr. Froude as the successor of Mr. Freeman in the Chair of History at Oxford has roused indignation in England which is by no means confined to the Liberals and the Irish. The literary adherents of Lord Salisbury are nearly as much perturbed by it as the fiercest of the Gladstonians, for there seems to be little doubt that it has, what an appointment to a professorship in a great university ought not to have, a political significance. Moreover, it has, to Mr. Freeman's friends, the air of a slight to that distinguished historian's memory, for, as everybody knows, he had for fully twenty years pursued Mr. Froude like a sleuth-hound, and made the exposure of his inaccuracies part of his weekly work in the *Saturday Review* and elsewhere.

This professional loathing for Froude is, it is well known, shared by Bishop Stubbs and indeed the whole of the new school of history, although none of them was willing to express it with as much freedom as Mr. Freeman. For what this new school puts high above other qualifications for writing history is not only thorough familiarity with the original authorities, but absolute adherence to them in the text, to the exclusion of picture-writing or rhetorical embellishment. Mr. Froude, on the other hand, they maintained, made the authorities merely what the musicians call a "motive" on which to base a limitless amount of melodious prose, in which the citations were apt to be inaccurate and the gaps to be supplied by the imagination. Mr. Froude, too, has, since he stopped writing history, furnished corroboration to his enemies among the historians by inaccuracy carried to the point of drollery in his books of travel. It is true that no man is ever hunted very long without having his defects grow in number and in gravity in the eyes of his pursuers, and Mr. Froude did not escape this fate. He became years ago, in the mind of Mr. Freeman and Mr. Goldwin Smith, not only wanting in veracity, but constitutionally incapable of telling the truth; and Mr. Freeman went down to the grave entertaining this opinion of him. This was no doubt exaggerated and unjust, but Mr. Freeman was able to make a show of reason for it.

To appoint, under these circumstances, to Mr. Freeman's vacant chair Mr. Froude, whom Freeman would have pronounced the least fit for the place of all living historians, looks like an expression of contempt for Freeman which his friends bitterly resent; and among his friends in England are all the eminent writers of history. What makes the matter worse is that Mr. Gardiner, the really great historian of the Civil War and the Commonwealth, has been passed over, to say nothing of Bryce, a still younger man, who has shown himself by his 'Holy Roman Empire,' as well as by monographs, no unworthy successor, in his own University, of any of those who have filled the chair. The appointment, too, recalls that of Kingsley, who was a deplorable failure, and scandalized the scholars by serving out gorgeous pictures of ancient and mediæval life, in lieu of the rigid exploration and dry scientific reports which are now expected from everybody who undertakes to extract instruction from the past for the benefit of his contemporaries. His professorial career was used by a distinguished wit, now deceased, of another University to give point to a sarcasm directed against Kingsley's successor, whose inaugural lecture the wit attended. After listening some time, he observed to his neighbor, "Well, well, who would have thought we should be lamenting poor dear Kingsley so soon!"—two very successful shots with both barrels.

When people ask why the appointment of Mr. Froude was made in this somewhat offensive fashion, the answer which, whether true or false, comes most readily is that Freeman was a Liberal and Home-Ruler, and so are Gardiner and Bryce, while Froude is a good old-fashioned "give-him-a-dozen" Tory; but these are reasons of which literary men—and *a fortiori* scientific men—are a little ashamed. Their inadequacy is increased by the fact that Mr. Froude is over seventy, which ought to be an absolute disqualification for the place of teacher for any man whose life has not been devoted to teaching. He cannot, in the order of nature, hold the post very long, and it seems a pity that the closing years of his career should be disturbed by the acrid revival of all the old charges against his integrity as an historian brought by Freeman and others, which if collected would make a very stout volume. A worse introduction to the young men who are to sit under him, and presumably are to profit by him, could hardly be imagined. The enemy's artillery, too, is now opening on his English, which for a whole generation has constituted his glory in the eyes of the "general reader." The last London *Speaker* contains a three-column attack on a page taken at random from his 'History of England,' which is most destructive, and makes it surprising that Freeman did not employ a grammarian to hang on his flank while he assailed him in front.

AN ENGLISH GLACIAL MYTH.

OBERLIN, April 15, 1892.

THAT there are myths in modern science as well as in ancient history has recently been brought to light by some interesting glacial investigations in Great Britain. Briefly stated, the facts are as follows: At Moel Tryfaen, on the northwestern flanks of Mount Snowdon, in Wales, and on the western slope of the Pennine chain, a little south of Manchester, there occur extensive glacial deposits at all elevations up to 2,000 feet in height. At an elevation of 1,100 feet upon the Pennine chain, and of 1,400 feet at Moel Tryfaen, there occur thin laminæ of water-washed gravel containing numerous shells consisting largely of subarctic species. These beds early attracted the attention of English scientific men, and down to the present time have been objects of unfailing interest. They have been examined and written upon by no less eminent authorities than Mr. Edwin Forbes, Mr. Trimmer, Mr. Darwin, Sir Charles Lyell, and Profs. Ramsay and Prestwich.

When attention was first directed to these shell-beds, it was prevalently believed that all of what we now recognize as glacial deposits took place beneath the water, and

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that *icebergs were the principal agents in the* transportation of boulders and in the striation of rocky surfaces. With this theory in possession of the field, the occurrence in glacial deposits of shell-beds containing arctic and subarctic species created no surprise, and their submarine origin was unquestioned. But when the views of the Swiss glacialists came to prevail, which attributed to land ice the transportation of boulders, the striation of rocks, and the deposition of boulder clay, these shell-beds came to be objects of increasing curiosity. That they were water deposits could not be questioned; that the shells had originally flourished in salt water was equally evident. It seemed, therefore, a most natural conclusion that, at the time of their deposition, the level of the ocean relatively to that of the land was from 1,400 to 2,000 feet higher than it is now.

It is largely upon these facts that there has arisen the theory of two glacial epochs in England, with an interglacial period, during which the central and northern parts of the British Isles were submerged to a depth of 2,000 feet or upwards. Indeed, so clear has seemed to be the evidence upon this point that this theory has passed unquestioned into nearly all the text-books and treatises which have appeared upon the subject during the last twenty-five years. But in view of recent investigations it now seems clear that this explanation of the shell-beds is altogether erroneous, having arisen from the mistake, so often made in inductive reasoning, of resting too implicitly upon conclusions drawn from an imperfect collection of facts.

While conducting, with the late Prof. Henry Carvill Lewis of Philadelphia, the survey of the glacial boundary in Pennsylvania in 1880, the new conceptions of glacial phenomena forced upon us by the facts there brought to light led us to discuss the importance of having the same work done in Great Britain which we were then beginning to do in the United States. In accordance with plans then laid, Prof. Lewis devoted two subsequent summers to the field work necessary to ascertain the exact limits of the glaciated area in the British Isles. The partial results of his observations were published in papers read before the British Association in 1886 and 1887; but his untimely death, which took place soon after, prevented the publication of his matured conclusions, and left nothing but a great mass of field notes which still remain unpublished. A large number of English geologists, however, became acquainted with the results, and have been prosecuting with great energy the lines of inquiry which he opened. One of the most important of his inferences relates to the origin of the shell-beds under consideration, though it must be said the conclusions to which he came had been dimly foreshadowed by two or three English observers, among whom was Mr. Clement Reid of the Geological Survey. Under the guidance of various geologists who had become familiar with Prof. Lewis's views, I was permitted last summer to visit the typical places for testing his theory. What I then saw, especially when taken in connection with the publication of recent papers upon the subject by Prof. Percy F. Kendall, the Rev. Dr. H. W. Crosskey (the worthy pastoral successor of Dr. Priestley, in Birmingham), and of Mr. Clement Reid, enables me to endorse with great confidence Prof. Lewis's explanation of the origin of these shell-beds—an explanation which really revolutionizes the prevalent views concerning an interglacial period in England.

Prof. Lewis's theory was, that the shells occurring in these interglacial laminæ of gravel were carried up to the height found upon the Welsh mountains and the Pennine chain by the movement of land ice which had come down into the Irish Sea from the southwestern portion of Scotland, from the Lake District in England, and from the northeastern part of Ireland, and which had filled the Irish Sea, and in its movement had pushed up portions of its bed, and left them as deposits over the land surface of England and Wales as far as the southern and southeastern movement of the Irish Sea Glacier had reached. This theory, which would at first seem so incredible as to be almost unworthy of notice, is now supported by a variety of evidence which seems to place it upon an unassailable foundation.

In the first place, the unstratified glacial deposits in the vicinity of these high-level shell-beds are full of fragments of shells, of the same character with those in the laminæ of gravel, mixed in with the boulder clay as the ordinary pebbles are which have undoubtedly been transported by glacial ice; while observations of Mr. Lamplugh upon the east coast of England, and of Mr. Upham on the glacial deposits about Boston Harbor, show that beyond doubt shells have been pushed up from the sea-bottom to a height of a hundred or more feet without suffering serious injury. The glacialist is fortunate, also, in having in ice a material which can turn itself into water at any height, and produce the limited amount of stratification necessary to sort out the gravel and shells included in a general glacial deposit. Hence the theory starts with a true cause, and is by no means incredible.

The confirmatory evidence is also of the most interesting and satisfactory character. Accurate observations have established the fact all over England that the shells found in glacial deposits considerably above sea-level are limited to areas which are shown by the transportation of boulders to have been covered by glacial ice that moved over sea-bottoms. For example, in the northwest of England and Wales, wherever high-level shell-beds have been reported, it has been found perfectly safe to prophesy that in the near vicinity there would occur boulders from the Lake District of England and from the southwest of Scotland, whose route to their destination lay over the Irish Sea; while in the areas beyond the reach of such boulders, shell-beds of this character are looked for in vain. The same is true upon the east coast of England, which was invaded by Norwegian ice. The shell-beds in glacial deposits much above sea-level are limited to the area which was covered by Scandinavian ice that had moved across the North Sea.

Again, close attention to the character of the shells found associated in these glacial deposits shows that they did not grow under similar conditions, for the species are as various as those which represent cold-water forms and warm-water forms, together with rock-haunting and sand or mud-loving varieties. In the same beds also late Tertiary species, whose nearest allies are now found in the Mediterranean Sea, occur side by side with arctic species, and Mr. Clement Reid has recently reported that near Oswestry, in Wales, delicate Lias fossils have certainly been transported without serious injury and raised to a considerable distance by the glacial movement that passed over the region. Moreover, now that the limits of the glaciated area of Great Britain are definitely known, there is abundant evidence that there has been no recent deep submergence of the extensive unglaciated areas existing in the central and southern parts of England. If the shell-beds under question had been deposited during a general submergence, there would have been some signs of the submergence upon the east side of the Pennine chain as well as upon the west side. Sea-beaches and water-worn caverns and shell-deposits such as invariably characterize a sea-bottom would occur over the broad area in the centre of England extending all the way from Leeds to Oxford. The absence of such marks of geologically recent submergence is indubitable evidence that it did not occur.

Briefly stated, the glacial history of the British Isles is as follows: In the early stages of the period, the glaciers which began to form upon the Welsh mountains pushed southward to the Bristol Channel and eastward to the valley of the Severn, where in the northern part they reached as far as Birmingham. Over this area there are no shell-beds. Meanwhile the great Scandinavian glacier crept over the North Sea until it met a limited easterly movement of ice coming down from Scotland and the north of England. The prevalence of the Scandinavian ice is first indicated at Flamborough Head, east of York, by Norwegian boulders which are found more or less over all that portion of England lying east of a line drawn from Flamborough Head to London. Meanwhile, also, the Irish Sea was filling up with the ice which moved off from the southwest of Scotland, the Lake District of England, and the eastern coast of Ireland. Eventually this great confluent glacier reached the Welsh mountains and divided, one portion passing westward over Anglesey and along the channel of the Irish Sea, and the other portion down the Vale of Chester to the upper part of the Severn Valley, near Birmingham. The shell-beds are limited to these areas.

Evidently, therefore, the ice-movement in Great Britain was a unity, accompanied only with those minor episodes and those complicated results of deposition which would naturally be connected with the advance and retreat of so peculiar and complex a substance as glacial ice is known to be. The theory of an interglacial submergence will hereafter disappear from geological text-books, and the cautious note of Sir Archibald Geikie's volume, written five years ago, in which he acknowledges that Prof. Lewis's theory is worthy of consideration, will find its place in the body of the treatise to describe a well-established fact. G. Frederick Wright.

ART TREASURES IN JAPAN.

Tokio, March 1, 1892.

When Justinian's codifiers wrote

"Nullius autem sunt res sacræ,"

it doubtless served as a satisfactory solution of a then not very difficult question. Where art appears only as the handmaid of religion, the title of the deity to the ownership of temple treasures conflicts with no other claim, and fulfils completely the purposes of the votaries who present as well as the priests who guard the pious offerings. The Japanese solution was that of the Romans. To the Buddha were given and to the Buddha belonged the masterpieces of painting and of bronze which have accumulated in the thousands of temples during a thousand of years. But times change; art and religion separate. Posterity accepts

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the inheritance of the past, but accords to it a different reverence, and the nation competes with the shrine for the possession of the treasures. It has now become in Japan an interesting question whether the Government is justified in transferring them from the temples to the museums. The question would be a less difficult one if the interests of religion or any other high interests were served by keeping the property as it is. But so many dangers threaten it under present circumstances, so important are the artistic interests involved, and so selfish and undeserving are the aims of the custodian priests, that expediency and justice give but one answer. On the one hand, then, the public good clearly authorizes the assumption of control by the Government. On the other hand, however, remain the technical difficulty of finding a legal right to take control, and the practical one of avoiding the creation of a popular opposition at a time when the Government, for its own sake, must furnish as few causes of offence as possible. My purpose in this letter is to give briefly some account of the measures that have been taken for preserving the temple treasures of Japan, and of the conditions attending the work.

I must mention at the beginning, and often, a name which would by this time have become more familiar to the reading public had it not been for the modesty of its bearer. From the time when Mr. Fenollosa came from Boston, in 1878, to take the professorship of Philosophy at the Imperial University, until he left Japan, in 1890, to accept a curatorship at the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, the story of the revival of Japanese art is the history of his efforts, ably assisted by Mr. Okakura (now director of the Art School), Mr. Hamao (in the Department of Education), and a few enthusiastic disciples. In 1878 the rage for things foreign had almost reached its height. On one side stood a set of radical young men, who had been educated abroad, the most extreme of them committed to the adoption of anything and everything foreign, privately declaring that the Japanese were an inferior race, and utterly opposed to native Japanese art. The opposite party was even less to be looked to for sympathy: a group of old-fashioned conservatives, worshippers of Chinese traditions, obsequious adherents of unprogressive formalism, and deeply jealous of the influence of the foreigner. Of a true and intelligent appreciation of the place of Japanese art in world-art, or of the possibilities of inherited methods or of improved technique, there was little trace. The cultivation of such a taste and understanding was the work to be accomplished.

But the foundation of all efforts in this direction was the study of the art-inheritance received from Old Japan, and the collection and preservation of the country's treasures now became the immediate and practical duty of the little band of enthusiasts who had gathered around Mr. Fenollosa. From 1880 until the great search-expedition of 1888, under the direction of Mr. Kuki, some six trips were made into the interior by Mr. Fenollosa, Mr. Okakura, and a few others, either alone or together, for the purpose of cataloguing the paintings, carvings, bronzes, and other objects of value in the myriads of temples. In 1879 the Government had caused a preliminary and partial record of these treasures to be made, but it was quite insufficient for the purpose. Apart from the meagreness of the territory covered, the word of the priests had been taken as to the existence and character of the articles, and numbers had not been reported at all, while the record was so general in terms ("A Buddha," for instance, was regarded as a sufficient designation of a painting) that substitution of worthless pictures was often practiced, and identification at the annual inspections was impossible. The amendment of such defects and the completion of the catalogues was the object of the subsequent expeditions. The zeal and system with which the work was now prosecuted brought great results. In 1886 the districts around Nara and Kioto were well covered. In 1888, immediately after the return of the Art Commission (Messrs. Fenollosa, Okakura, and Hamao) from Europe, the remainder of the central region, known as the Gokinai (Home Provinces), was practically finished.

By this time official interest in the undertaking, under Count Ito's enlightened patronage, had been thoroughly awakened, and the company included representatives of the imperial household and of various Government departments, as well as numerous experts and reporters. Photographs were carefully taken; every object of art was inspected, classified (in one of six grades), measured, stamped, and inscribed in an official register. Even manuscripts were registered, where they seemed of value. Among the notable results was the discovery of important Chinese paintings from the sixth to the ninth centuries, and the first attempted construction of the history of Japanese art for the same period. But by this time also the various obstructive influences had gathered force. In the first place, age and neglect had told with increasing effect on many of the temples. The decay of the abandoned buildings had proceeded apace, and much of value had been lost. But chiefly the effects were felt of the outside demand for the very treasures sought by the Government. The rapacity of the collectors combined with the poverty of the priests to deprive the nation of some of the finest works of art. Even since the preceding inspection of 1886, numbers of articles had been made away with. In many cases it was a race between the dealers and the Commission to see who should become the possessors of some well-known masterpiece, and a day or two sometimes decided the destination of the prize. Earlier in the same year, and just before the visit of the Commission, the great monastery of Koyasan, containing scores of paintings, had been burned to the ground; and it was a matter of common belief that the valuables had first been abstracted, and the building then burnt to destroy the traces of the plundering. Nor was this an isolated instance of resort to such expedients.

The sources of this demand were many. The agitation in favor of an adapted Japanese art had called general attention to the importance of these treasures, and the revival of national feeling, which began to show itself about 1887, had helped to swell the general interest. The chief factors in creating the demand seem to have been the art-loving members of the aristocracy, who were anxious to secure the masterpieces for their own collections; the rich merchants having similar ambitions; the conservatives who desired to save the classic relics from desecration; and the brokers who catered for the foreign market. The tactics resorted to were many and devious. By previous collusion with the priests, a process of substitution became the commonest means of achieving their ends. Where every movement of the Commission was made publicly, and with official deliberateness, there was abundant opportunity to thwart its plans.

In the meantime the new departure had been showing visible results in the domain of original art-work. In 1880 Prof. Fenollosa began a series of private lectures, having for their object the awakening of the Japanese people to a practical knowledge of the importance of their art to themselves and to the world, and of the conditions of its revival. In 1884 an association called the *Kangakwai* was founded by him for the encouragement of the work of the new school, and its first exhibition, in the spring of 1886, was an unqualified success. In spite of temporary opposition, both from without and from within the Government, this school soon came to represent the dominant influence, and the present School of Fine Arts is conducted upon the methods elaborated by Mr. Fenollosa, and faithfully continued by Mr. Okakura, upon whom his mantle has fallen.

These results have been referred to merely to indicate the success that has attended the work of the little group of enthusiasts, and the larger influence now at their command. They are ready now to utilize with the greatest profit their opportunities for the study of classic models, and to prosecute with their more extensive power the work of preserving the relics of antiquity. Since Mr. Fenollosa's departure, in 1890, several other provinces have been visited, and the cataloguing proceeds without cessation. Some 1,500 photographs in all have been taken. The superstition of the temple-custodians has required of the officials in many cases a pledge that the sanctity of the deity's possessions shall not be violated by the publication of the photographs. But before long a preliminary sketch of the history of Japanese painting, based on a study of the canvases themselves, may be expected from the press, and some 100 of the photographs will accompany it.

But the problem of property is yet unsettled. Just what could be done by the Government if it were disposed to remove certain of the masterpieces to local or national museums, is the question which the friends of art are debating. It is obvious that there are in Japan's case certain special difficulties which have not been so noticeable in the kindred undertakings of European Governments. The treasures of classic art in Japan are not abandoned monuments of architecture or buried sculptures, sacred only to the memory of antiquity. They are objects of living interest to vast numbers of human beings, votive offerings to deities who still receive at least a conventional veneration from the people, even if they no longer command the devotion which prompted such offerings. The Government has to deal not merely with the greed of speculators, but with the beliefs of a nation. Besides this, the political situation is at this moment such that the Government cannot afford, however earnest its disposition to aid the cause of art, to seek by new legislation to cut the Gordian knot. There are pegs enough on which the Opposition may hang its arguments, and it has become expedient to avoid giving it any further opportunities to hold up the present Government as the subverter of popular rights.

In these circumstances the chief reliance of those who have in charge the interests of art must be upon precedent and acknowledged legal rules, so far as they may be found to give any support. It will be apparent that for this purpose three sets of facts in particular will be of importance. One is the source of the temple donations and the traditional notions as to the effect of the gift. Another is the customs defining the relation of the parishioners to the treasures. A third is the precedents indicating the extent of control exercised by the Tokugawa Government over temple property. As

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to the first, there is much interesting learning. No one who is familiar with the feudal history of Europe will fail, in studying Japanese history, to observe that similar conditions prevailed. The temples waxed great in the middle ages with the possessions that were showered upon them. Down to the latest times there were definite customs as to *kifuchi*, or endowed lands. The portable treasures, as well as the lands, they owed chiefly to the benefactions of Emperors, daimio, samurai, and even commoners, wishing to obtain happiness in the other world. Now it appears in some regions that endowed lands could be taken back if ever the family of the donor fell into want; and the possibility of a lapse of the gift being thus established, it remains to investigate the whole subject and to learn clearly what other conditions, if any, were recognized as affecting the permanence of the temple-custodianship. We know, for instance, that the Tokugawa Government not infrequently forfeited a work of art for some fault on the part of its custodians, and that more rarely the delivery of some valuable—a gift in name, but not in fact—was required for the adornment of the Shogun's palace.

Turning next to the third topic, the measure of control exercised by the Government, we note that it was, as might be expected, by no means a restricted one. The Tokugawa family, conservative enough in every matter of vested rights, was not in the habit of holding its hand whenever the public interest was in any way concerned. "The Temple-Magistrate," said Iyeyasu, the great Consolidator, in his Eighteen Laws (of 1615), "shall according to old custom superintend all Buddhist and Shinto temples." A rule existed under which an annual inspection of certain important temples and a registration of their possessions was made by the Shogun's commissioners; and though doubtless the opportunity to keep a watchful eye upon the state of the forces of powerful daimios and the appearance of their fortifications influenced the perpetuation of the practice, it becomes in the present connection a precedent of much significance. The inclination of the priests to dispose of the treasures for their own gain was doubtless as strong then as now, for we find in 1738 a proclamation "As to the Pawning of Temple Effects":

"Of late it has frequently happened that the images, votive offerings, utensils, and other effects of temples have been freely pawned or sold to raise money. This is wrong. Hereafter not only those who obtain such loans, but also their sureties, shall on conviction be punished. The creditor, too, is a partaker in the wrong, and shall recover nothing."

All these signs make it worth while to follow up the subject carefully and see how far the present Government may go while keeping within the track of its predecessor. The rule already established by it is, to be sure, less strict than that of the above proclamation. About 1878 a regulation was made, dividing temple property into two classes, common and special. The former may (as a rule) be sold only with the written consent of the priest and all the parishioners. The latter embraces the *hōmotsu*, or valuables—relics, censers, paintings, etc.—and may be sold under the same formalities, but only when it is absolutely necessary in order to preserve the existence of the shrine. We are here introduced to the parishioners, who are to-day, in fact, becoming the most important element in the problem. The *danka*, or parishioners, of the local temple or temples are one of the interesting features of village life in Old Japan. No one would expect to find the English vestry and church wardens in the communities of Buddhist worshippers in feudal days under the Tokugawas; but there they were, or something very like them. To describe just the extent of their interest in the temple property and their share in its custody would be a long story, and in fact an impossible one, in the present state of our knowledge of Japanese institutions. But if the religious belief of the rustics inspires in them a traditional regard for the painted Shaka or Amida, equally with the tooth of the saint or the claw of the *tengu* hobgoblin, they are none the less moved by material needs and mercenary desires, and they would often dispose of the treasures, if they could, for money to pay the town taxes or some of the other burdens of the hard-working farmers. It is this claim of the parishioners or the villagers to dispose of the valuables which is at present of most importance. So far as concerns the right of disposition for personal profit, the Government has settled the question in accordance with propriety and with precedent by forbidding the sale, except under the circumstances above mentioned. But the right of the Government to withdraw the treasures to local or national museums is still an open question; and some solution of it which shall be legal and at the same time fair to all parties and conducive to the best interests of art and of patriotism, is the desideratum of to-day. J. H. W.

Correspondence.

DRED SCOTT AND HIS BACKERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Can you or any of your readers tell me who "put up" the Dred Scott case—that is, backed him in suing, paid the fees, and used him for a dummy to get an important political decision? Of course he had neither power nor money himself, and would have been promptly knocked in the head if it had not suited somebody to let him go forward. Who originated the case? I know the counsel gave their services gratuitously, but that cannot have covered all expense, and does not account for his having permission and stimulation to carry on this long contest. He was a stalking-horse for some set of men. Who? This question has long been one of great curiosity to me, and I have never seen any allusion to it in the enormous literature of the case. Probably it is not determinable; if it is, others of your readers will thank me for bringing it up. I suppose it was of Southern origin, to bring out a foregone decision. F. M.

April 21, 1892.

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH LITERATURE AND LANGUAGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I notice in the *Nation* of April 21 the challenge of Mr. Brander Matthews to name a university with "two full and independent professorships, one of English language and one of English literature."

But why is the challenge put in this particular form? There was no mention of full professorships in the original article, and in any case Mr. Brander Matthews is not taking refuge behind mere names. The point at issue is, to quote his letter, "that the teaching of English language and of English literature are equally important and wholly unrelated to each other." It was while urging the complete separation of the two that the statement I quoted in my former letter was made, including the clause, "perhaps Columbia College has shown the fullest understanding of the exigencies of the situation."

Now I have not, the slightest desire to say anything against Columbia, and I purposely refrained from mentioning Harvard, Yale, and Princeton, because Mr. Brander Matthews had already, somewhat dangerously, made the comparison with those institutions. I merely gave the facts in regard to three universities in which the teaching of English language and literature is completely separated, and in which equal importance is given to each. Whether the two associate professorships at Johns Hopkins are finally to be made full professorships probably rests with the trustees of that institution, but they have certainly thus far recognized the equal importance of the two lines of work. So if Michigan University separates English literature, English philology, and rhetoric, it matters not to the discussion whether this is done by means of three full professorships, or through the agency of three competent men with other titles. The facts at Cornell are also exactly as I stated them, notwithstanding the charge of lack of candor. English literature stands wholly by itself, under the charge of a full professor. English philology is entirely separate from the literature, under a full professor whose title is Rhetoric and English Philology. Certainly it might be claimed that rhetoric belongs to the study of language rather than to literature; but there is no need to make this claim, since that point was not touched by the article in question. This is, however, a complete separation in different departments, under full professors, of English language and literature. But if the question is one of names only, I might ask why "Columbia has shown the fullest understanding of the exigencies of the situation," when she has, according to the article in the *Educational Review*, neither a full professorship nor an assistant professorship of English language apart from literature, and the instructorship mentioned includes only Anglo-Saxon?

Let me say, finally, that, whether Mr. Brander Matthews is pleased with my good opinion of his article or not, we are both sincerely interested, I hope, in the actual status of English literature and language in American colleges and universities. It has been usual for a long period to make provision for English literature. Thanks to the influence of such pioneers as Prof. March of Lafayette, to the example of such men as Prof. Child of Harvard and Prof. Cook of Yale, and above all to the willingness of Americans to profit by the thoroughness of German scholarship, English philology is now on a firm basis in a dozen or more institutions in America. Oliver Farrar Emerson.

Ithaca, N. Y.

Notes.

The concluding volumes of Mr. Edward L. Pierce's Life of Charles Sumner are now in press. The first two appeared in 1877.

The *Times* Publishing Co., Philadelphia, will shortly publish by subscription 'Lincoln and Men of War Times,' a work consisting of Mr. A. K. McClure's recent articles in his journal, and embellished with twenty-seven full-page portrait and other illustrations.

D. Appleton & Co. will have ready on April 30 the Memorial volume on the Centennial of Washington's Inauguration, which is issued in

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a limited edition to subscribers. They have also nearly ready 'The Jew at Home,' *i. e.*, in Austria-Hungary, by Joseph Pennell.

A history of the Witchcraft delusion in Salem, Mass., two hundred years ago, with some notice of cases elsewhere, by Winfield S. Nevins, is announced for June next by Lee & Shepard, Boston, and the North Shore Publishing Co., Salem.

We are glad to learn that Mr. Henry C. Lea is passing through the press a new work, called 'A Formulary of the Papal Penitentiary in the Thirteenth Century,' printed from old manuscript possessing a singular interest. The Penitentiary was the body intrusted with the papal power of absolution and dispensation throughout Europe; and its use of this power, as exemplified in the several hundred cases embodied in the Formulary, throws light upon many points in the relations between the Holy See and the rest of Christendom and on the morals and manners of the period. The text of the MS. will be accompanied with an introduction and notes by Mr. Lea. The whole will make an octavo volume of about 200 pages.

Charles Scribner's Sons are about to bring out a work on china-collecting in America, by Mrs. Alice Morse Earle; 'The Colonial Era,' by Prof. George P. Fisher; 'The Old South,' by Thomas Nelson Page; 'A Tramp Across the Continent,' by Charles F. Lummis; 'The Bull Calf, and Other Sketches,' by A. B. Frost; and a volume of poems, 'Dreams and Days,' by George Parsons Lathrop.

Harper & Bros. announce 'The Letters of Samuel Johnson,' edited by G. Birkbeck Hill; 'The Light-Bearers,' papers on Tennyson, Ruskin, and the Brownings, by Mrs. Anne Thackeray Ritchie; and the 'Technique of Rest,' by Anna C. Brackett.

A book on 'The Claims of Decorative Art,' by Walter Crane, with illustrations, and a Life of Henry Boynton Smith, by the late Prof. Lewis F. Stearns, are on the list of Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Mr. George A. Aitken, the biographer of Steele and Arbuthnot, has edited Marvell's poems, and this work will presently be published, in two volumes, by Messrs. Lawrence & Bullen, London. The fact that Marvell went to the school at Hull where Mr. Aitken himself was educated must have given enthusiasm to the present undertaking of the latter. Mr. Aitken has further undertaken to edit Burns's poems for the new edition of the Aldine poets. This work will not appear until the autumn. Among other forthcoming books of the new firm just mentioned, who have already accustomed us to a pleasant combination of good literature and good manufacture, are an edition of Anacreon in the Greek, with Stanley's translation, metrical renderings by various hands, and illustrations; the Fairy Tales of Mme. D'Aulnoy, with an introduction by Mrs. Ritchie, and illustrations; and Mr. Joseph Knight's 'Theatrical Notes,' a contribution to the history of the English stage.

Mr. Austin Dobson has been editing Fielding's 'Journal of a Voyage to Lisbon,' and it will be published shortly by the Chiswick Press. A one-volume selection from his poems, made by himself, has been issued at Leipzig in the English Library which the late Wolcott Balestier founded just before he died, as a rival to the Tauchnitz Series.

The Knickerbocker Press of the Messrs. Putnam has just taken possession of its new building at New Rochelle, on the line of the New York and New Haven Railroad, with enlarged facilities for all the processes involved in bookmaking.

Mr. John Vance Cheney publishes under the garb of essays what were originally meant as "talks" for young people, and had for their purpose to encourage the knowledge and love of poetry. The title of the volume, 'The Golden Guess' (Boston: Lee & Shepard), indicates a degree of uncertainty which is not apparent in the text itself. The definition of poetry, it is true, consists of a series of quotations from a large number of masters of eloquence and epigram, and leaves the answer at last in the "inner consciousness"; but that the Hebrew poets were the greatest of all is as plain as the nose on your face, and that Matthew Arnold was the master of those who know, except, of course, in the point of Hellenism vs. Hebraism, is the beginning of understanding. These things being premised, the essays on Tennyson, Browning, Swinburne, Music, and Hawthorne follow a safe and beaten track. Susceptibility to literature and a modicum of good sense and good morals make up the author's critical stock-in-trade, and this is not a bad outfit for the popularizer of good books as the times go; but, on the other hand, the predilections we have indicated and the slavish Arnoldism of the essays, except when dealing with the Hebrews, disable the writer in the higher field. Even the young, to whom he especially appeals in his preface, could find better guides; for though his observations are as a rule just and plain, the mood is vague and sentimental, and suffuses what is sensible with an unwholesome feeling.

The eighth volume of Prof. Henry Morley's 'English Writers' (Cassell) brings that useful repertory of the facts of our literary history down to 1579, so that the present year bids fair to see Spenser and Shakspere fully included in the range of the bibliography. This will increase the value of the work for those purposes of reference for which it is best adapted in schools and colleges, though the method begins to show its incompleteness more obviously in proportion as the subject of study becomes pure literature. The history of literature, however, on the side of biography, phases of the national life and of European culture, and the catalogue of books issued, has never been so comprehensively treated; and the very unattractiveness of these annals makes easier for the student the line of demarcation between the literary and the historical interest. If the philological side of literature could be so adequately treated by itself in a similar way, the much discussed question of how to treat literature would be greatly simplified. Literature as history is not less to be objected to than literature as language, and it is much to be suspected that instruction which avoids the latter error falls into the former one; but the more these different aspects of literature are separately presented, the less confusion there will be. Prof. Morley, as an encyclopædist of fact, does most useful service, and it is a great gain to his work that he has no room for more than one point of view.

The name and fame of Landor is one of the lost causes of literature, and shares the same attraction for the neophyte in criticism that Charles I. has for the tyro in history. The essay upon him is calculable: its argument shows the engrossment of the writer with the manner of his master in the two points that it is dignified and that it fails to convince; and, like all pleaders for lost causes, the author is aware from the first line that the best he can say is useless. Mr. Edward Waterman Evans, jr., who contributes the latest of these unhoping encomiums on greatness deferred, 'Walter Savage Landor: A Critical Study' (Putnams), does his task with commendable taste and in sincerity; he has made out Landor for himself, and knows why he ought to like him, but, through no fault of his own, he cannot divest Landor (Landor could not divest himself) of the qualities of a *simulacrum*: his hero never passes the point of *seeming* to be great. Mr. Evans's essay is notable as a sign of interest in the higher literary criticism, and is academic in quality. A new writer begins by making his devotions at the shrines; after that, he gets down to work.

The protest against English philology under the disguise of literary study begins to bear fruit in text-books, and among the first of the reformed order is "Hamlet," edited by Carroll Lewis Maxcy (Boston: Ginn & Co.). The language element is reduced to a minimum in the notes with success, and the stress of instruction is laid on the minute development of the play as a story—in other words, on dramatic construction. The ability to make an exact plain prose paraphrase in the shape of a tale would seem to be the aim of the instruction. This fact illustrates what we recently said of the experimental character of the new teaching of literature. Can we be sure that this is a better way of studying Shakspere than the old method? and does it not err in the same point, namely, of treating "Hamlet" as something to ask the greatest number of questions about? If dramatic construction is to be studied, is Shakspere the best author to use? If Shakspere is to be studied, was dramatic construction anything more than an incident in his genius? It is a gain, no doubt, to substitute, in literature courses, the study of a literary form for that of a language form; but the main effort of the new method is, we believe, to get at the substance of literature, at what is expressed, and not at the mode of expression, which is to be treated secondarily. These queries and remarks indicate that the present text-book, which is in its own way admirable, merely substitutes one sort of narrowness for another; the most it can accomplish is to help dissolve the old tradition, and in time a more catholic treatment may come.

Spencer's 'Philosophy of Style' is reissued with an introduction and notes by Prof. Fred N. Scott (Boston: Allyn & Bacon) in a form suitable for school use. The barrenness of the essay, relying as it does on a single principle of style, is eked out by the addition of a second paper, by T. H. Wright, which succeeds in showing how limited was Spencer's view but does not add very much except by suggestion. The editor appears to be a propagandist of Spencerianism. There was certainly no reason for the bibliography of Spencer's works in the introduction except the wish to use the opportunity for spreading the faith. A Rhetoric can easily dispense with a laudatory biography of its author, the insertion of which here, in an ordinary text-book, is most uncalled for.

The Book-Lovers' Library, which we have commended as a most interesting collection of out-of-the-way yet desirable information, adds to its already rich list 'Books Condemned to be Burnt,' by James Anson Farrer (A. C. Armstrong & Son). This does not deal exhaustively with the subject, and merely glances at the general history of the burning of books in an introductory chapter, the body of the volume being reserved for the English record. The occasion for such conflagration was, of course, politics or religion, and in the course of the inquiry one comes upon curious illustrations of the growth of opinion, upon books whose very substance of thought has become ashes long ago, upon passions and vagaries of the sort whose remembrance seems to resolve the past into a history of folly; but for the most part the list is that of a very "antique" catalogue. The lover of books must be something of an an-

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tiquarian to relish the titles truly and to feel interest in the lives and fortunes of the authors. The last book burned, it appears, was 'The Present Crisis with regard to America Considered' (February 24, 1775), and no copy of it seems to be known.

Mary R. Silsby has collected and arranged a volume of 'Tributes to Shakespeare' (Harpers), in which some pieces not easily accessible are contained, so that for the earlier centuries the volume has a certain value; but it tapers off at the end into a mere scrap-book of latter-day verse, and a large proportion of these later pieces are without any sort of claim to remembrance, and the best of them, with a scant half-dozen exceptions, are only commonplace.

In 'The Bible, the Church, and the Reason' (Scribners), Prof. Briggs prints seven lectures delivered by him at various times and places. They find their pertinence to the controversies with which his name is now connected in being mainly a positive reaffirmation and expansion of the views which have brought him under ecclesiastical process. The volume will go far to extend his reputation as a heretic who arraigns his prosecutors, insists that they are the ones to recant, and, in general,

——"bangs and bethwacks them—their backs he salutes
With the whole tree of knowledge torn up by the roots."

Mr. Wilbur Aldrich's 'Farming Corporations' (New York: W. Aldrich & Co.) adds another to the schemes for the easy and complete cure of the evils of the social body. In simplicity of thought and in innocent faith in the effectiveness of his panacea, the author may easily take rank with his fellow-Utopians, of whom the last few years have brought so plentiful a supply; but in economic training he falls far below speculators like Hertzka, or even Bellamy. He proposes an association of farmers in his native town in Maine, who are to form what the economists call a society for coöperative production. The success of this association will be such that a speedy reorganization of the nation on the same lines is sure to follow, and trade, banking, canals (canals, by the way, are to be greatly enlarged and extended), railways, insurance, and everything else soon drop into association hands, and all are happy. Mr. Aldrich's plans are presented with little detail and with no appreciation of the real difficulties of the problem.

The public will have to stand on its guard against the device of American publishers to secure copyright for fiction that appears first serially in England, by issuing amputated portions without advertising the fact. This was what lately happened in the case of Mr. Barrie's 'Little Minister,' and still more recently in the case of Mr. Mallock's 'A Human Document,' which comes to us from Cassell before it is finished in the *Fortnightly*, and hence ends with the sixteenth chapter, about the middle of the February instalment. This is a very reprehensible practice, and is by no means atoned for by the subsequent publication of the work in full.

"An Episode in the Life of James Russell Lowell" is related by Mrs. Anna Davis Hallowell in *Harper's Weekly* for April 23, with the aid of letters revealing the poet's friendship with her parents in the early days of his married life. Some of these are among his best, and notably extend in prose his already remarkable list of anti-slavery portraits in verse. Some anti-Texas stanzas, published purposely without his name and never admitted to his collected works, are also printed. One stanza, beginning,

"Grey Plymouth Rock hath yet a tongue,"

was a familiar abolition quotation. But the cream of the "Episode," after all, is Lowell himself, the bridegroom of 1845, with his wife, from daguerreotypes. Here is Hosea Biglow in person, with flowing necktie and flamboyant waistcoat, with a twinkle in his eye, and dialect trembling on his tongue. The cut misses the subtlety of expression in the original sun-picture.

Mr. George W. Julian contributes to the Indiana Historical Society's publications a vindication of the rank of the Quaker Charles Osborn as an anti-slavery pioneer. In so doing he ignores the Rev. George Bourne's distinct enunciation of the doctrine of immediate emancipation and opposition to African colonization in 1816 (in his 'The Book and Slavery Irreconcilable,' a document that outweighs the entire sum of Osborn's printed utterances against slavery); gives Osborn the undue credit of having "published the first anti-slavery paper in the United States," whereas his paper was devoted to general reform; and vastly overrates his abolition efficiency, except in furnishing a medium for Benjamin Lundy's budding zeal in the same cause. The fact is, as any one must see who reads Osborn's 'Journal,' that he was much more of a sectarian than an anti-slavery crusader, and two circumstances prove this: his end was embittered, if not hastened, by his disownment by his pro-slavery co-religionaries; and when the banner of immediate emancipation, newly set up in Boston, was carried flaming from one end of the North to the other, he never rallied to it in the twenty years of life still left him. Bourne, on the contrary, rallied to it promptly. Osborn, again, did not, like Lundy, give up everything to the slave, nor can he be compared for one instant with Lundy as a reformatory and apostolic power. Yet Lundy was a gradual emancipationist.

A useful piece of historical research has been performed by Mr. Charles Edgeworth Jones in his little pamphlet, 'Political and Judicial Divisions of the Commonwealth of Georgia' (Atlanta: Jas. P. Harrison & Co.). The writer deals in successive sections with the Earliest Division; Parishes; Counties; Congressional Districts; State Senatorial Districts; and Judicial Circuits. Not content merely to display the result of his labors, Mr. Jones refers throughout to the sources of information. The naming of the 137 counties offers a curious study. Brooks County was named (in 1858) after the assailant of Sumner, and all but ten of the names are personal, commemorating eminent Americans, North and South, with much catholicity; seven are Indian, two (Liberty and Union) symbolic, and one (Rockdale) topographical.

A Summer School of Higher Pedagogy and of Psychology will be held at Clark University, Worcester, Mass., from July 18 to July 30. It is designed for superintendents and instructors, and the courses will be given by Dr. Wm. H. Burnham, Dr. E. C. Sanford, and President G. Stanley Hall. Particulars may be had of Dr. Burnham, Dean of the University.

The second annual session of the School of Applied Ethics will be held at Plymouth, Mass., from July 6 to August 17. The courses will be in the history of religions, economics, and ethics, this last being given by Prof. William Wallace of Oxford. For particulars, application should be made to the Secretary, Mr. S. Burns Weston, No. 118 South Twelfth Street, Philadelphia.

A prominent figure was removed from the publishing world by the death in this city on April 19 of Mr. Roswell Smith, President of the Century Company, in the sixty-fourth year of his age. Mr. Smith was a native of Lebanon, Conn., and was born into an atmosphere of books and book-making, and had his first training in a publishing-house in New York. He afterwards, however, pursued his education at Brown University, and entered the legal profession, which he practised with great success in Indiana. He returned to his first love at the instance of the late Dr. J. G. Holland, with whom he embarked in the original *Scribner's Magazine*, afterwards the *Century*, and made that periodical the success which it soon became and has ever since continued—with all that is implied therein for American letters and art. *St. Nicholas* was started at his suggestion; his, also, was the idea of the 'Century Dictionary,' and the faith which carried through so laborious and costly a work. The building up of the De Vinne Press is a part of his monument. Mr. Smith possessed remarkable executive ability, and was fertile in projects and resources. He habitually manifested a rare large-mindedness and liberality, and impressed these qualities on his associates. He carried his religion into his daily work, and abounded in acts of charity and benevolence. His failing health had latterly prevented his taking an active share in the direction of the company.

—The illustrations in the May *Century* accompanying Mr. Van Brunt's description of the "Architecture of the World's Columbian Exposition" exhibit to the eyes a graphic impression of the features of the *mise-en-scène* of our approaching Fair, that is most gratifying to the pride of the country, and conveys every promise of conferring honor on the distinguished group of architects and artists who have had the plan in charge. The text of the paper explains what is necessary to an understanding of the aims and methods involved, and, in connection with the cuts, is the most important popular document concerning the matter yet put forth. The Fair is also the occasion of the eloquent characterization of the personality and times of Columbus by Señor Castelar, which may profitably be put in contrast with Mr. Eugene Lawrence's article on the same subject noticed last month. Castelar will have nothing to do with the romantic doubts and legends of Mr. Lawrence, and certainly the portrait he draws, having in it much less of the mediæval and much more of the Renaissance tone and color, seems to us best supported. He brings in what might be called the psychology of history to interpret the mystery of Columbus, and the figure he draws is one harmonious with the complexion of the age; at the same time he puts the practical faculty of Columbus, his trader instinct, in full light, and reconciles it, historically and in national temperament, with the prophetic and mystic element. In the remainder of the number art is a prominent subject, and among the others the paper on Couture is especially successful in rendering that artist's rough individuality, and enlivening the mere story of a career with anecdotes unobtrusively told. Neither can we pass over the admirable paper upon yachting, which, besides much technical information about boats, brings out the fact that not far from 60,000 persons must follow this sport on our waters; and also not to be neglected is the attractive description of the

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country life of Kentucky, with its analysis of the character of the people of that State, their past social history, and the rich opportunity the blue-grass region offers for the country-place which appeals so persistently to the taste of our English race. Both these latter articles are charmingly illustrated. There is a profusion of fiction and poetry in the number, and of these Mr. Aldrich's sonnet is one of unusual felicity in touch and feeling.

—In the *Harper's* it is a pleasure to find Mrs. Sutherland Orr's biography of Robert Browning and his wife supplemented by so capable a writer as Mrs. Ritchie. The biography was most dry and meagre in just those touches of personality which in this paper are made the stuff of the story. One finds no "revelations," of course, but much pleasant illustration of the two poets' lives and manners, and of their friends, such as John Kenyon and Mr. Milsand, and others less known, but necessary to make up a circle. The new material consists of memoranda and of some letters to Prof. Knight, in the main, with reminiscences by Mrs. Ritchie herself; there are the usual portraits and facsimiles which garnish such papers, mostly as a matter of custom. The solid articles of the number are an elaborate one, of the well-known pattern, upon the German Army, with full illustrations; a second, of an equally conventional style, upon "The Dakotas," by Mr. Julian Ralph; a thoughtful but not over-progressive paper on "The Private School for Girls," by Anna C. Brackett; and an instalment of Mr. Frank Millet's Danube voyage. The novelties are the beginning of Miss Wilkins's story, of which much is expected, and a poem by Mr. Howells.

—The second supplement to the 'American Catalogue,' published in 1876 by the joint labors of the late F. Leypoldt and R. R. Bowker, has now been put forth under the editorial direction of Mr. Bowker, who also furnishes the preface. It records books published (and [illegible]ported in editions) in the years 1884–1890, [illegible] its appearance, considering the laborious [illegible]cter of the work and the perfection of [illegible]pography, is very punctual, though it [illegible]en unavoidably delayed. We are told [illegible]000 more books and 7,000 more entries, [illegible]g 138 more pages, are included in the [illegible] volume as compared with its immediate [illegible]sor, which, moreover, covered a period of eight as against one of six years. Several new features have been introduced: reference is made by page to the issue of the *Publishers' Weekly* in which the entry is fully set forth; and there is a list of State publications (1884–1890)—a first attempt, and as imperfect as must needs be the case in the present condition of State library administration; but the editor aims to make it the basis of a retrospective bibliography. The list of publications of societies has been so much enlarged as to become almost a novelty. Mr. Bowker hopes at some future date to tackle privately printed books and municipal (city) publications. But his contemplated *magnum opus* is a 'General Catalogue of American Publications of the Nineteenth Century,' to be issued in several octavo volumes in 1902–1905. We must refer our readers for details to the preface, and will merely instance the estimated cost, viz., from $50,000 to $100,000, for which Mr. Bowker proposes a subscription of 500 guarantee copies at $100 each. We believe he can obtain it. This important work achieved, "it would then be comparatively easy to complete the national record, as would not be possible in an older nation." Mr. Bowker concludes his remarks by noting a secondary consequence of the new Copyright Law, in that it establishes an official basis for American bibliography through the records in the Library of Congress. The hearty congratulations which he tenders on the passage of the law, must be returned in thanks to him for his arduous and disinterested services both to that end and to the rearing of this imperishable and invaluable monument.

—As perhaps not one in ten of our readers has ever seen the 'American Catalogue,' it will not be superfluous to say that the original issue enumerated the titles of all books in print in this country on July 1, 1876, and that the local branches of English houses were treated as American, so that the scheme comprised (as it does still) a great many English publications. A complementary volume was made a subject-catalogue, and this, too, has been kept up, though the issues now consist of a moderate-sized single volume, embracing both authors (and titles) and subjects. This apparatus enables one at a glance to discover the total product of a given author in the given period, and to learn all the necessary particulars about the date of a book's appearance, its size, cost, editions and styles, and publisher; on the other hand, to ascertain whether any work has appeared on a given topic. Such a book of reference obviously ought to be found (1) in every public library in the land without exception; (2) in every considerable bookstore; (3) in every leading newspaper office. It would thus be within easy reach of the great body of book-buyers, whose purchases could be made with greater ease, certainty, and economy, and with less trouble to others by inquiry for information, than is now the case. Students and authors would be correspondingly benefited. Moreover, the compilers would receive an adequate compensation for their toil. That they do not is proof that the 'American Catalogue' is not yet appreciated or distributed according to its deserts; yet the present volume contains a list of 1,700 American publishers alone.

—The Chairman of the Managing Committee of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens has just received the following note from Dr. Charles Waldstein, with further information about the excavations conducted at the charge of the American Archæological Institute:

"We have found besides the wonderful head and two smaller ones, a torso of a metope in perfect preservation, altogether presenting a revelation of the Polyclitean art of Argos in the 5th century B. C., which will force all to rewrite the history of art for that great period. The hundreds (I might almost say thousands) of smaller objects, bronzes, terracottas, vases, gold and silver, ivory, Egyptian or quasi-Egyptian objects, will keep us at work for a long time. Our men deserve the greatest credit—Brownson, Fox, De Cou, and Newhall. Prof. Poland took charge of the work for five days when I had to be in Athens. About Sparta, suffice it to say now that we have found a most interesting building—the circular building of Epimenides, built about 532 B. C. Dörpfeld and all the Germans consider it a most important find. It furnishes the only fixed point for the study of the topography of Sparta. There is also an interesting inscription. Beyond all expectations, the owners of land acceded to my request to allow tentative diggings, and I dug deep trenches in about forty places. The trench in the theatre was fifty-two metres long by two and a half wide, and in places six metres deep."

—For the first time in its history, on April 21, the American Oriental Society met in Washington, as the guests of the Catholic University and the Smithsonian Institution. Dr. W. Hayes Ward, the President, was in the chair. This was the first meeting of the Society under the new plan of holding only one longer session a year, instead of two short ones. The change has proved to be a good one. Some forty papers were presented. In view of the coming World's Exposition next year, it was eminently proper that Dr. Cyrus Adler (Johns Hopkins) should present a paper "On Christopher Columbus in Oriental Literature," with special reference to a Turkish manuscript. Dr. Adler went over the early Jewish statements in regard to Columbus, and dwelt especially upon a Turkish work called *Tārīkh Hind Gharby*, a notice of which is to be found in the first volume of the Society's publications. It was the first book printed in Turkey. Dr. Adler, while in Constantinople, was able to secure a manuscript of this work of the date 1550. The account of Columbus in it is of little value, but the maps—which, by the way, are all turned upside down—are extremely interesting. Dr. Adler was also able to give some more definite information in regard to a Mr. W. B. Hodgson, an Oriental scholar of America whose name has been almost forgotten. A catalogue of his valuable collection of Oriental manuscripts, printed in Washington in 1830, was accidentally found in the National Library in Paris. After a long search, Dr. Adler located the manuscripts—or a portion of them—in the Telfair Academy of Arts and Sciences at Savannah, Ga. These are now in the United States Museum at Washington. What has become of the others is, as yet, a mystery. It turns out that the collector, Mr. W. B. Hodgson, was chargé d'affaires for his country at Constantinople and in Northern Africa. He was the first representative sent out by the Government for the express purpose of studying Oriental languages and literatures. He reported directly to the President.

—Dr. John P. Peters, Director of the late expedition to Babylonia sent out by the University of Pennsylvania, was able to make a verbal report to the Society of the chief results obtained. Attention was directed by the excavating party to the series of mounds known by the name Niffer, once among the oldest of the cities of Babylon. They there uncovered the old temple of Bel, the chief sanctuary of the place. Tablets were found which go back to the earliest Babylonian dynasties, forty centuries before the beginning of our era. A workshop was found and colored glass—perhaps the oldest discovery of glass outside of Egypt. Dr. Peters searched long for the clay cylinders which were always placed in the corners of the building, and which are so valuable as historical material. He was unsuccessful; but, in making this search, he had occasion to test the accuracy of the orientation of the buildings. He found in most cases that this was in no way accurate or mathematical, but vague and often quite incorrect. The collections made by the expedition are now on view in the Museum of the University of Pennsylvania. In connection with Babylonia, Mr. John Dynely Prince (Johns Hopkins) attempted to settle the meaning of the enigmatical inscription which appeared on the wall of the banqueting chamber of Belshazzar, the last King of Babylon. Following a hint given by Clermont-Ganneau, he translated the words *Mene, mene, tekel upharsin*, "There have been counted a mina, a shekel, and half minas." According to Talmudic usage, an unworthy son of a worthy father is metaphorically called a "half mina, son of a mina." In this way the author of Daniel wished to draw a parallel between Nebuchadnezzar the Father and Bel-

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shazzar the Son. The mina was the largest Babylonian weight. The shekel was one-sixtieth of the mina, and would represent Belshazzar as the unworthy successor of the founder of the Babylonian Empire. The two half minas point to the division of the kingdom of Nebuchadnezzar between the Medes and Persians. One of the most interesting papers of the whole session was that of Dr. K. Kohler (New York) on "The Historical and Literary Relations of the Early Christians to the Essenes." Dr. Kohler believes that the Apocalyptic literature shows clearly that Essenism forms the connecting link between the Old Testament and the New. Dr. Kohler also finds that the so-called Apostolic teaching, the 'Didache,' and the Apostolic Constitutions, are essentially Essene in character and of pre-Christian origin. Prof. H. Hyvernat, of the Catholic University, made a valuable contribution to the history of Semitic science in a paper entitled "Historical Sketch of the Work of the Popes and of the Propaganda for the Advancement of Oriental Learning." He showed how the Popes, through their interest in the conversion of "heathen" nations, had done everything to further the study of Oriental languages in southern Europe. They had invited learned representatives of these nations to come to Rome, had established colleges, and had been among the first to assist the efforts that were made to establish printing-presses for the diffusion of Oriental texts in Europe. The Society adjourned to meet next year at the call of the Board of Directors.

—The second volume of Moltke's 'Gesammelte Schriften und Denkwürdigkeiten' (Berlin: Mittler) is entitled Miscellaneous Writings, and consists of papers chiefly of an historical character and originally printed some fifty or sixty years ago. The earliest of these literary productions appeared in book form at Berlin in 1831, and gives a sketch of the mutual relations of Holland and Belgium from their separation under Philip II. to their reunion under William I. This is followed by an exceedingly interesting and instructive delineation of the internal relations and social condition of Poland, in which the strong and weak qualities of the countrymen of Sobieski and Kosciusko are impartially portrayed, and the causes which led to the loss of their independence and to their national extinction are clearly set forth. It was first issued as a pamphlet by Fincke (Berlin) in 1832. The third paper, entitled "Die Westliche Grenzfrage," is an historical discussion of the boundary question between Germany and France, and especially of the policy of conquest arbitrarily pursued by Louis XIV. and resulting in the devastation of the Rhenish Palatinate and the annexation of Alsace and Lorraine. It was contributed in 1841 to Cotta's *Deutsche Vierteljahrsschrift*, and shows how strongly Moltke as an historian then resented the wrongs which he, as a soldier, did so much thirty years later to rectify. Of a different character is the elaborate essay on the things which ought to determine the direction of railroads. The views expressed prove that Moltke was far in advance of his contemporaries in the conceptions he had formed of the industrial, economical, and strategical importance of such lines of communication. It first appeared in the aforementioned Quarterly in 1843. The volume concludes with five shorter papers bearing on the Eastern question, which are reprinted from the Augsburg *Allgemeine Zeitung* of 1841, 1842, and 1844. They are the results of Moltke's personal observations made during his sojourn in Turkey from 1835 to 1839, and treat the subject from geographical, ethnographical, political, and military points of view. Interesting is his remark on the tendency of modern civilization to render wars less frequent, and his expression of the hope that the time may soon come when the milliards of money and the millions of men now (in 1841) devoted to preparations for war, may be turned into peaceful and productive channels. That war, as it is sometimes said, develops heroic virtues, he admits, but he thinks these qualities may be called forth more profitably to mankind by industrial enterprises of great scope than by martial exploits.

RECENT FICTION.

Tess of the D'Urbervilles. By Thomas Hardy. Harper & Bros.

The History of David Grieve. By Mrs. Humphry Ward. Macmillan & Co.

The Lesson of the Master. By Henry James. Macmillan & Co.

A First Family of Tasajara. By Bret Harte. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

In the Vestibule Limited. By Brander Matthews. Harpers.

Muckle Jock, and Other Stories. By Malcolm M'Lennan. Macmillan & Co.

Denzil Quarrier. By George Gissing. Macmillan & Co.

THE title-page of 'Tess of the D'Urbervilles' is decorated with the supplementary phrase, "A pure woman faithfully presented." In the light of this phrase the book must be read, and with the assurance that the author's definition will be found there. A definition is found, full and explicit, doubtless directly inspired, for it bears no resemblance to the common usage of our language, but is, on the contrary, a negation if not reversal of the definition we learned at school, and of the meaning impressed on us by the practice of living.

After possessing ourselves of the circumstances which lead to and surround Tess's first misadventure or misdemeanor, the suspicion arises that Mr. Hardy, who never errs on the side of chivalrous respect for women, has only indulged in a playful gibe of questionable taste at a rigorous social canon. As the story advances, it becomes plain that his phrase is a deliberately chosen head-line for the extraordinary argument that a woman whose conduct is flagrantly impure, in the sense of unchaste, may have an enormous fund of what he calls intrinsic purity, and that moral value is to be reckoned not by achievement, but by tendency —with the corollary, most comforting to the weak, purposeless, and vicious, that the beauty or ugliness of character lies not in performance, but in aims and impulses, its true history not in things done, but in things willed. Tess's story is told with such vigor and passion that one need not be wholly unreflecting and uncritical to accept Mr. Hardy's false premises, and to fail to perceive the effrontery of his plea for pagan naturalism, which in plain English means physical deterioration and moral death. Granting him his assumption of "intrinsic purity" without any reference to conventional respectability, but with a meaning limited to a feminine instinct of self-defence, Mr. Hardy takes pains to show us that Tess is entirely deficient in that instinct. If his premise of purity is sincere, it rests on an imperfect induction, or on the fundamental error of identification of the sexual impulses of men and women. It is not in obedience to any dictate of society that most women are chaste, but in obedience to a general law of that Nature, the God of his idolatry; a power which in the beginning created them male and female, and which was not so barren of ideas as to make the feminine type a repetition or feeble imitation of the masculine.

The real explanation of Tess's first lapse from virtue lies not in the argument or the circumstances, but in another descriptive phrase, "A vessel of emotion untinctured by experience." There is no record of any resistance worth mentioning, of any violent revolt of the imagination; and the idea of a possible mental influence is particularly excluded. The vessel was filled with animal emotion to the exclusion of checks. She was unfortunate, not pure. Even the paltry excuse of inexperience cannot be offered for her subsequent exploits in the exhibition of purity. For the second time she leaves her home, feeling that the children would probably gain less good from her precepts than harm from her example. It is pertinent here to remark that the average reader of Tess's story will probably be in the same case as her brothers and sisters. But, "at last," we are told, "she had learned what to do"; yet no one who can spell out the uncertain meaning of inclinations and tendencies will, with all the charity in the world, be able to doubt that if the second man who approached her had not chanced to wish to marry her, what had happened before would have happened again. When Angel Clare, in the pasture, makes a surreptitious dash at the "desire of his eyes," she yields to his embrace "with unreflecting inevitableness." Again by his phrase is the author's argument eternally pulverized. "Unreflecting inevitableness" in such a position may be a misfortune; it is not purity. In the crises of existence what one is —one's essential being—expresses itself in action. A greater than Mr. Hardy said that conviction is worthless till it convert itself into conduct. He was not deaf to the cry of human nature, but he dared to distinguish between a genuine cry and a sentimental scream.

The remainder of Tess's career, her failure to enlighten Clare until after their marriage, her return to her first lover for reasons which a woman of common decency would have rejected as frivolous, her last mad act of vengeance—all go to show that she was a weak and supremely sensual woman, and that Mr. Hardy's book, with its titular phrase and its argument eliminated, is a powerful and artistic delineation of that sort of a person. A poetic appreciation of inanimate nature she certainly had, rather wild and tinged with superstition; she loved Clare as she had not loved D'Urberville; she cared deeply for her family—but she was quite a victim to "unreflecting inevitableness," and cannot be exonerated from a yearning for lemon-colored gowns with slippers to match, procured at no matter what price.

The people who help along this doleful tragedy manage to express their character in action. D'Urberville is a thorough-going scamp. His temporary religious fervor is a scampish aberration; it has no roots in his former life and no sequence. Angel Clare is a good man, just and not unduly severe. It is natural that he should discard his wife, not unnatural, considering her sensual attraction, that he should come back to her and not notice the lemon-colored finery. The Durbeyfield father and mother embody much humor, of which, if Tess had inherited a spark, she might have escaped many unpleasantnesses, includ-

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ing the gallows. In the minutely detailed dairy life, the smell of boots is stronger than that of clover, and the Clare-adoring milkmaids (all presumably "intrinsically pure") remind one of Bunthorne's maidens gone into flesh. The scene of "The Midnight Baptism," which appeared in the *Fortnightly* for May, 1891, and also in the English edition of the novel, is omitted from the edition under review. The reason for such an omission is not clear. It is a very impressive scene, which, but for artistic restraint and proportion, would be farcical. It is irreligious, but not immoral. Still, we cannot regard this edition as deliberately expurgated out of respect to the "young person." 'Tess of the D'Urbervilles' is as profoundly immoral a book as the "young person" can easily lay her hands on.

No two novels could offer a more vivid and direct contrast than 'Tess of the D'Urbervilles' and 'David Grieve.' Mr. Hardy's argument might be cut out by paragraphs and pages, and there would remain between the covers a thrilling and gloomy tragedy. Mrs. Ward's story and argument are inseparable, and the argument is the *raison d'être*. Mr. Hardy is a novelist, and had much better stick to his last. Mrs. Ward is heart and soul in the modern "movement," an apostle of progress, a preacher of an uncertain sort of Christianity, of an excellent morality, and of a presiding, immutable *Ananké*, yclept Heredity. If it were not for the industry, patience, and ability displayed in her disquisitions—qualities which forbid even the appearance of disrespect—we should say she had better stick to her last. There may be uninstructed rustics who suppose that the beautiful lady in the hair-dresser's or milliner's window is exhibited for her own sake, and not primarily to advertise the coiffure or bonnet. So there may be people who will read 'The Story of David Grieve' for David's sake, and believe that it was written first of all to make known how one man attacked the problem of life, and what was the outcome for him. Yet these undiscriminating beings are, we think, rarer even than the ingenuous rustics; are of those who care more for "good reading" than for story and art, and are blissfully ignorant of subtle distinctions between creation and representation. Mrs. Ward's dexterous and steady management of her "movements" reminds us of a circus-rider with six horses abreast—she keeps them so cleverly in hand. She, however, never rides at a gallop or straight for the finish, but, at a decorous walk, pursuing devious ways, arrives eventually at the point she has had in view, with her team in good condition. The dulness of the performance for a person of quick perception, who is not totally ignorant of the trend of modern movements, lies, perhaps, in the fact that he commands a sight of the finish almost from the start, and therefore, by nothing short of grim determination, can keep down his pace to Mrs. Ward's. If he has just been reading 'Tess,' he may more willingly restrain himself, fully to enjoy Mrs. Ward's triumphant illustration of the influence of character on conduct.

David Grieve's conduct is shaped by his primitive instincts, expanded, modified, corrected, and directed by intelligence applied to experience. As he generally has the air of a theory in the concrete, a generalization with a name, the satisfaction derived from this part of his delineation is all the more profound. David had his moments of aberration—so have we all: in his childhood, for instance, when he tried to "get religion," and, failing, went to the inn, got gin instead, and behaved altogether very badly. Though this period of "childhood" is very long (an unusual defect in the period of childhood, for most of us all too fleeting!), and though it must be spelled out rather than read by those not privileged to have enjoyed a course of instruction in the Lancashire dialect, it is the time when David is most himself and least many others. Here are fewer explanations, not only of feelings, but of remote sources of feeling; here we are less constantly bidden to observe an advance into new plains of intelligence, and the reflex action of the mind on experience; here we are less frequently invited to consider whether his moral perceptions are ethical or æsthetic. David's second and great digression from his normal rectitude is in Paris. But this digression has its scientific reason. His maternal heredity must have its fling, just to round his character and to show that the terrible sister Louie has not monopolized the family supply of naughtiness. Mürger, born again and become a captain in the Salvation Army, might have written these Paris chapters; his wit and spontaneous deviltry being effaced by a realizing sense of how mad and bad it all was, and of his solemn duty to hold himself up as a warning for young men.

With the close of that "storm and stress" with which it is not quite possible to feel sympathetic anguish, all chance of aberration vanishes. We settle down to accompany David through a "wrestle of conscience as sensitive as profound, as tenacious as scrupulous"; we brace ourselves to see him through his theological puzzles and humanitarian experiments. He solves his spiritual problems by finding refuge and rest in the idea of God, and that idea stands on a conviction of a force in human beings which is "beyond nature, which, instead of being made by nature, is the condition of our knowing there is a nature at all." This conviction seems to satisfy David, but is not vividly illuminating to others, and suggests that, for a clever, inquiring fellow, he has been very slow. He says that his idea is not open to argument, which seems to number him with the despised dogmatists whom we have always with us.

As David represents all Mrs. Ward's specifics for the sad world's healing, so her large assemblage of persons represent nostrums at worst pernicious, at best innocuous. These persons are carefully observed—far, far too carefully for just appreciation of those who must be up and about their toiling and spinning. Each one is a variety of the species familiar either in life or in fiction, not always in both. The Parisian figures are distinctly done at second hand; so are the phenomenally insolent Lady Driffield and Col. Danby. The terrible sister, Louie, is a subject fitted for the manipulation of the great Ouida only. In few aspects does she seem a possible person, in none (let us rejoice!) a probable one, and yet the one deep note of personal passion in David sounds in his remorse for his neglect of her. He is head and shoulders above a generalization when he begs her not to do herself (her dreadful self) injustice; and his failure to save her at the last is, after all, the one signal failure in the life of the individual, David Grieve.

The reviewer who arrives at Mr. Henry James's volume entitled 'The Lesson of the Master,' may indulge in a hurrah!—he has got out of the wilderness. No more struggling with people who try to do several things at once, or with people who have no clear idea of what they want to do. Every page is, in the art of fiction, a Lesson of the Master. Every story is distinctly a story, and nothing else, an entanglement of which the unforeseen dénouement is quite the thing to have been foreseen if only one had been clever enough. There is, however, some excuse for density in the author's manner, so cultivated, leisurely, absorbing, that the mind is not impatiently prefiguring a solution—is, indeed, in no way occupied with that, except for the regret, as the end draws near, that so fine a performance should not go on indefinitely. To praise perfection is superfluous, and the reviewer who would avoid inane garrulity need say little more than a few words of reflection on what seems to him partly to account for the artistic perfection of Mr. James's latest volume.

It is indispensable that a good story-teller, even as a good judge, should preserve strict impartiality, that he should have the knack of keeping out of the quarrel. To stand apart and watch the fight (or even the small scrimmages) of life, and then to tell, neither approving nor condemning—that is the lofty and lonely function of the modern artist in fiction. To attain this height he must not become a monster incapable of emotion or sympathy, but he must feel *for* all the participants in the conflict and not *with* any. He is a spectacle of pure intellect and artistic sensibility dominating commoner if not inferior qualities. For all who enjoy this interesting and singular spectacle, Mr. James's book will be a source of pure delight. Only in one instance does he appear to discard his impenetrable mask and to speak his own mind. The "Master" seems to express the author's convictions about the tribute which literature exacts from one who has espoused the profession of letters and would be worthy of his calling. The Master's denunciation of himself as a worshipper of false gods, and of his confrères who work for money (not to live on but to riot on), certainly has an admonishing ring. The story of "The Pupil" illustrates an impersonality proof against all temptation. The pathos of the situation is so subtle and so profound, the inducement to exclaim, "Now behold the sorrow of this! Reflect on the pity of that!" is so strong, that the author's self-restraint appears marvellous. Yet he makes no faintest deviation from his dispassionate calm, and the result is that the reader, by the aid of his own unguided beholding and reflecting, is gradually consumed with pity, and, at the catastrophe, has a moment very near to personal anguish.

There are scenes and characters in 'A First Family of Tasajara' which compare favorably with Bret Harte's early work. We have mourned over the author of 'The Luck of Roaring Camp' as one irretrievably fallen from greatness, and are only too glad to recognize signs of his rising again. The scenes are before one flood made the Harkutts' fortune, converted them into Harcourts and a "First Family," and after another flood had swept their fortune away, if not obliterated their social preëminence. The characters are Peters, Wingate, and Billings, who, in adversity as in prosperity, preserve that imperturbable calm founded on an inextinguishable sense of humor, which Bret Harte alone has known how to create or to represent in a way that carries delighted conviction. The plot (there is a good deal of plot) is ingenious, romantic, and not noticeably artificial, excepting the incident which connects John Milton Harkutt's second love, the rich and sentimental widow, with the mysterious 'Lige Curtis. Clementina Harkutt's elusiveness is a little theatrical, but she is a person to wonder at, and helps to rank the story among its author's good things.

'In the Vestibule Limited' does not rank

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among Mr. Matthews's best things. Coincidence is strained, and a Miss Vernon, in life, would be more likely to fly from Miss Marlinspuyk with uncomplimentary ejaculations about meddlesome old cats than meekly to acquiesce in the outcome of her benevolent intervention. For the rest, there is sprightly dialogue and, in description, the author's known neatness of touch—qualities sufficient to make the little book an agreeable companion for half an hour in a vestibule limited.

When the volume of stories entitled 'Muckle Jock' appeared, more than twenty years ago, they doubtless deserved the encomiums lavished on them by the literary press. Then, plain stories of plain people, plainly told, were so unusual that all the world wondered when a volume of such curiosities was published and actually found interesting. Now, one has almost to apologize for writing stories about people who are not plain, almost low, in their habits, no matter how intrinsically common they are shown to be. The success of Mr. Barrie's Scotch stories may account for this new edition of Mr. M'Lennan's stories of peasant life in the North, but it does not follow that 'Muckle Jock' will prove as acceptable to the *fin de siècle* public as 'Auld Licht Idylls.' Mr. M'Lennan has neither the power of idealization nor the quick fun of Mr. Barrie, and, just now, the world is tired enough and prosy enough to give great value to those qualities in literature. The remnant of the host that adored George Eliot for her carking earnestness, will find in Mr. M'Lennan a worthy disciple of their great teacher, with equal sincerity and a comparable power in the delineation of rustics who get up and go to bed with the sun, but whose lives are otherwise sadly at odds with the sun's brilliant career. To read the stories intelligibly, it is necessary to understand pure Scotch, or, at least, to make constant reference to the glossary at the end of the book.

'Denzil Quarrier' is a clever study of a clever Englishman of the middle class. His aggressive self-reliance, which saves him from being a Philistine, is responsible for the error which makes the story. That English novelists now make no bones about the discussion of marriage versus *l'union libre* indicates a widespread modification of public opinion. The misery which they generally heap upon those who have preferred the illegal arrangement, or who have imagined themselves to be driven to it, may also be taken to indicate that they don't mean to hustle the British nation into any sort of anarchy which includes free love. Quarrier's choosing to live with another man's wife is a natural enough expression of his arrogance, but, being an astute and cautious person, his scheme for deceiving his stodgy constituents is too obviously rash. This is an assumption of idiocy, in a man otherwise reported sane, which no novelist can indulge in and hope to live.

PATRICK HENRY.—II.

Patrick Henry. Life, Correspondence, and Speeches. By William Wirt Henry. 3 volumes. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1891.

We have thus far made it plain that we find ourselves in substantial agreement with the author in the larger outlines with which the life and career of Patrick Henry are here delineated by his grandson and biographer. In some of the circumstantial details with which these larger outlines are associated, as also in some of the shades and colors with which comparative praise or blame is sometimes distributed, we are not always able to perceive the entire justice of the author's appreciations. We cannot see that Henry was wiser in opposing the adoption of the Constitution than Washington or Madison in favoring it, and it seems to us that some of the grounds on which he opposed it were drawn rather from panic fears than from real perils, as, for instance, when he predicted that under it the Mississippi River would be surrendered by the Northern States, or as when Grayson predicted that under it not a single Southern State would ever be admitted into the Union. We quite concur with the biographer in remitting to the limbo of contempt a series of letters in which an anonymous pamphleteer of the "Philo-Junius" order, writing under the pseudonym of "Decius," assailed the public and private character of Patrick Henry in 1789, at the close of the heated struggle over the Constitution. But in a single paragraph it seems to us that "Decius" struck the nail on the head, to wit, when he charged that Henry urged against the adoption of the Constitution "a thousand dreadful things which had nearly been the consequence of continuing under the Confederation." Among these "dreadful things" was "the sacrifice of the Mississippi," which in all probability would have been inevitable under the weakness of the Confederacy, but was forefended against even the treason of Wilkinson and Burr by the strength of the Union under the Constitution. Whether our civil war, and the consequences of war under the Constitution as predicted by Henry, should be ascribed to the "State-rights principle," which he advocated, and in which our war originated; or whether they should be ascribed to the Federalism which sustained the war for the Union; or whether some at least of the military consequences should not rather be ascribed to the "war powers" of international law by which the prerogatives of the Government were supplemented after the war had assumed "a territorial character," are all open questions, according to the point of view that is taken and the point of time at which our judgments are pronounced.

In any view we cannot convince ourselves that Henry was right in insisting on the adoption of his amendments—twenty in number, with a bill of rights superadded—as a condition precedent to the adoption of the Constitution by Virginia. Such a mode of procedure would have remanded the whole question of the Constitution and its ratification to the uncertainties of a void and formless future, besides being insulting and embarrassing to the States which had already ratified the instrument unconditionally. It would have been tantamount, in all probability, to an ultimate dissolution of the Union, which was then held together by "a rope of sand," and would have confirmed the suspicion of Madison in 1787—an unjust suspicion, we are sure—that Henry wished at that date "either a partition or total dissolution of the Confederacy." And we cannot perceive that Patrick Henry was discreet in the struggle he made, after the adoption of the Constitution, for its earliest possible revision by a new Federal Convention. Such a proceeding would have thrown our infant polity into the chance medley and hotch-potch of a new political battle, to be fought over a new division of the Federal assets. It seems to us that Madison reasoned well when he held that if a new convention should be called on the heels of the ratification of the Constitution, it was "little to be expected that the same spirit of compromise would prevail in it as produced an amicable result in the first"; and that in such a second convention "it would be easy for those who had latent views of disunion, to carry them on under the mask of contending for alterations popular in some but inadmissible in other parts of the United States."

We can hardly agree with the biographer in holding that, though Patrick Henry took no part in framing or adopting the Constitution, yet the American people are mainly indebted to his foresight and persistency for the important safeguards which were engrafted on that instrument, soon after its adoption, for the protection of our liberties. The claim seems to us exaggerated. We cannot forget that Patrick Henry accepted these amendments very grudgingly, because they did not go far enough, and even held that they would "tend to injure rather than serve the cause of liberty," because they would "lull suspicion" without giving security. Just as little can we see that the pressure of Henry for amendments was the *vis a tergo* which impelled Madison to the accomplishment of the task which he effected on the floor of the House of Representatives in favor of the amendments recommended by that body. Madison and his associates did not take their initiative from Henry in either the motive or the choice of these amendments. As an advocate of the Constitution, Madison was not pledged to its inerrancy. Washington was a zealous advocate of the ratification of the Constitution, though admitting, while the ink with which it was written had hardly dried, that there were some things in it which never had his approval, and "which he was persuaded never would obtain his cordial approbation." In the matter of the amendments proposed by Henry, Madison admitted on the floor of the Virginia Convention that he was ready to consider "how far they were good," but proclaimed at the same time, with outspoken frankness, that "as far as they were palpably and insuperably objectionable, they ought to be opposed." In the face of the amendments concerted by Henry and his associates, Madison declared on the floor of the Convention that the Constitution, in the form impressed on it by its framers, was "infinitely more safe than it would be after introducing into it that long train of alterations which they called amendments." This was not the language of a man who would be likely to look to Henry for the *vis a tergo* which was to direct him in the pursuit of constitutional reforms.

We are therefore not a little surprised in this same matter of the amendments to find Madison charged with having practised "an artful concealment of his views" in a letter written to George Lee Turberville, under date of November 2, 1788, and which, it is intimated, was designed by Madison to conciliate the Virginia Legislature and procure his election as Senator. In this letter Madison admitted that he was not of those who thought the Constitution "a faultless work"; that there were amendments which he wished it "to have received before it issued from the place in which it was formed"; that there were some amendments which he still thought "ought to be made according to the apparent sense of America," etc. Such a letter, considered as one "designed to be used in the Legislature," seems to the biographer "very different from other letters written by Madison in confidence" to Washington and Hamilton immediately after the amendments of Henry had been broached in the Virginia Convention. In these letters Madison had held that some of Henry's amendments were "highly objectionable." But surely there was nothing covert or confidential in such communications, when he had

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openly proclaimed on the floor of the Convention that some of them "were palpably and insuperably objectionable." While these words were still ringing in the air, we cannot see that Madison practised any "artful concealments of his views," so far as can be judged from a comparison between his private and his public declarations. The public record he made for himself in open debate did not differ from the communications made to Washington and Hamilton under the sanction of private correspondence; and when, in this same Turberville letter, he declared his opposition to a new convention, the hostility of Henry and his partisans was, by that frank avowal, sufficiently assured against Madison's candidature for the Senate.

It was to be expected that the author of this biography would devote a special chapter to the history and significance of the Kentucky and Virginia "Resolutions of '98," which had such a decisive weight in precipitating the adhesion of Patrick Henry to the Federalist party. Where Madison, who wrote the Virginia series, declares that they mean one thing, and Calhoun, who adopted them as his own, declares that they mean another thing, there is obvious room for a wide oscillation of opinion concerning their real intendment. It is plain that these famous political cries were meant to scatter "ambiguous voices." Jefferson, indeed, made no concealment of their designed ambiguity when he wrote to Madison that it seemed expedient to affirm all the important principles which these "Resolutions" contained, so as to hold to the ground covered by them in the future, and yet to leave the matter in such a train that the Republicans would not be "committed absolutely to push the matter to extremities," while being left "free to push as far as events would make prudent." Such a "game of fast and loose" easily lends itself to double meanings as well as double purposes. But it hardly seems fair to expand the meaning of the Virginia manifesto in a belligerent direction by infiltrating it with the gasconade of John Randolph of Roanoke, simply because that political Thersites declared in 1817 that the Virginia Republicans looked to "violent opposition" in the passage of their solemn protest against the alien and sedition laws, and that they prepared for military resistance by building an armory in Richmond contemporaneously with their declaration. It was quite natural that the author of this biography should corroborate his views of the Virginia manifesto by citing the statement of Randolph, confirmed as it is by the authority of Mr. Henry Adams in his 'Life' of the Roanoke politician. Yet we believe the story is wholly apocryphal, and rests on nothing better than Randolphian melodrama and bravado. Certain it is that Randolph's statement at the time he made it was immediately and flatly contradicted on the floor of Congress by two of his colleagues, Mr. Pleasants and Mr. Jackson, who had been members of the Virginia Legislature when the "Resolutions of '98" were passed. And the impossibility of the story is clear enough if it be true, as we find stated in a Richmond edition of the "Resolutions," that "the Armory and Arsenal Bill," to which Randolph referred, was passed on the 23d of January, 1798, about five months before the alien and sedition laws were enacted. It would seem, therefore, that "the armory legend," as currently used to point a moral and adorn a tale at the expense of the Virginia "Resolutions of '98," is only another illustration of the "myths" which, light as thistledown and tenacious as burdock burrs, attach themselves with readiness to any epoch-marking and sensational incident in the annals of history. So true is it that the Muse of History, especially when she trails her robes along the highways of emotional politics, is sure to carry at her heels a crop of entirely plausible fictions which the *Mythus* has tacked on her train.

We should not omit, in closing these comments, to bear our cheerful tribute to the literary accuracy as well as the historical thoroughness and fidelity which Mr. William Wirt Henry has brought to the preparation of these memorial volumes. Careful reference is given on every page to the authorities which have been consulted, and the range of these authorities is wide. Typographical errors there must be, of course, in a work of more than 1,800 pages, but they are few. Slips of the pen there will be, as when, for instance, in the second volume it is written that "*Edward* Pendleton" (p. 347), instead of Edmund Pendleton, was the President of the Virginia Convention of 1788; or as when we are told by a witness, without correction, that Patrick Henry, in his latter days, was in the habit of carrying about with him "Soame Jennings's" book (p. 490) on the 'Internal Evidences of Christianity,' where reference is intended to the treatise of Soame Jenyns; but such inaccuracies are very exceptional. It remains to say that the typographical execution of the volumes calls only for commendation.

GERMAN ARCHITECTURE OF THE RENAISSANCE.

Denkmäler der deutschen Renaissance, herausgegeben von K. E. O. Fritsch. Berlin. 1882–1891. 4 vols., at 300 marks.

The late Mr. James Fergusson, in his 'History of Modern Architecture,' says that "the Renaissance architecture of Germany may be dismissed in a very few lines, inasmuch as, during these three centuries, not a single architect was produced of whom even his compatriots are proud, or whose name is remembered in other countries; and not a single building erected the architecture of which is worthy of much study, nor one that calls forth the admiration of even the most patriotic Germans themselves."

Now no writer calling his work a history was ever more haphazard in his statements than Mr. Fergusson; but had he waited a little before publishing this one, even he might have hesitated in its utterance. The year of the appearance of the 'History of Modern Architecture' witnessed also that of Lübke's 'Geschichte der deutschen Renaissance,' Ortwein's great work was already under way, and now, ten years after its beginning, the 'Denkmäler deutscher Renaissance' of Fritsch has come to a successful ending. It is true that before Lübke the Renaissance in Germany had lacked an historian; it may also be true that the great outburst of patriotism (and bumptiousness) consequent on the Franco-German war was, in a measure, the cause of all these works, and that, though patriotism may make a people prouder of its possessions, it cannot make those possessions any better than they were before; yet it is none the less true that the Renaissance produced monuments in Germany that deserve better treatment than the cheap sneer of Mr. Fergusson.

The splendid series of plates before us afford ample means for judging the architecture of Germany during the sixteenth and part of the seventeenth centuries. They are reproductions of photographs taken directly from the buildings themselves, are large enough in size to show clearly even the minutest details, and are perfectly satisfactory in execution. As there are 300 of them, they form, especially if supplemented by the equally splendid work of Dohme, 'Barock und Rococo Architektur,' an admirable representation of the constructive art of Germany between the fifteenth and the nineteenth centuries. The text, published with the last *Lieferung*, is strictly confined to the necessary explanations regarding the plates. It would have been well had it been preceded by an essay, even a short one, on the general aspects of the Renaissance in Germany, and still more is it to be wished that the plates had been numbered, and that there was an index, to avoid the necessity of seeking for a given view through the twelve *Lieferungen*, or the four volumes into which it was intended the work should be divided.

Architecture, everywhere in the north of Europe in these three centuries, was chiefly civil—palaces and town and country houses for the nobles and for the middle classes, to answer the new social wants of the new civilization, and public buildings. The Middle Ages had left churches more than enough for centuries that already made less use of them; the change in the modes of warfare had made unnecessary nine-tenths of the military architecture which other times had demanded. The new art drew its inspiration from Italy, and, as might be expected, Germany was far behind France in its application. Feudalism lingered longer in Germany, largely for want of a splendid and powerful central court to transform the character of the nobility, and the rude Burg still subsisted when the French nobles were already building modern palaces after the manner of the Italians. Moreover, the Renaissance entered into Germany by the way of literature and painting and engraving, rather than by architecture. Its builders in the sixteenth century knew Italy only from books, drawings, etc., and the plans that they evolved, executed by stone masons whose highest effort in the way of sculpture had been in geometric tracery, were naturally but clumsy achievements.

Besides all this, Goethe's reproach to Luther, that he had retarded civilization in Germany for fifty years, was nowhere truer than in respect of architecture. We know not only that Luther was not hostile to the arts, but that, in his way, he loved them; still, his work, and that of his time, was something quite other than their promotion. As long as he lived, then, the new architecture made but little headway. He died in 1545, and shortly after Germany began to be at peace and to reap the benefits of peace in splendid works. The triumphs of modern architecture in the land, the Otto Heinrich's Bau of Heidelberg Castle, the court of the old palace at Stuttgart, and the porch of the Rathhaus at Cologne, all date from the latter half of the sixteenth century. Up to the outbreak of the Thirty Years' War, the country followed with zeal the new direction given to art. If the results are less splendid than they were in Italy or France, it is because the country was less rich, less civilized, and also because (there is no use in denying it) it was less gifted in artistic qualities.

This excellent work of Fritsch is, then, after all, one more proof; if any were needed, that the Germans have never yet been an artistic people; and this in spite of certain great achievements in each period of their history. In the epoch of Romanesque architecture, the region on both sides of the Rhine was adorned by a series of magnificent churches, that remain to this day the most splendid monuments that

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the country can boast. The same style in other parts of Germany produced, as a rule, only horrors. Gothic art was introduced late, and its great successes could be counted upon the fingers of one hand. Still, the so-called *Norddeutsche Tiefländer*, in their forced use of brick, gave us a variety of Gothic which, without yielding anything of the very first rank, is original, dignified, and often impressive. So in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, alongside of three or four buildings that would do honor to any land, as many more that would be worthy of a second-rate position in France, and as many hundreds where some one feature—a portal, a gable, or an oriel, showing all the German love for elaborate decoration—is attached to a huge mass otherwise insignificant, there is a goodly number of more modest class that may fairly be counted among the best things the country can show.

Every traveller in Germany has noticed the huge timbered houses of old towns like Brunswick, Hildesheim, or Halberstadt. The ground floor is often built of well-squared stones, while the upper stories, usually projecting more and more beyond the lines of the foundations, are a skeleton of timbers filled in with brick or plaster. The main feature is, however, the gable, which soars majestically upwards with two, three, or even four stories of windows in its broad field. The sixteenth century found this type of house already existing, and did not dream of changing a thing so well adapted to the wants of the country. It merely modified the details. From Gothic, without altering a single fundamental disposition, the house became modern or Renaissance. The forms of everything ornamental were modelled after the classic and antique that the books were importing from Italy. Often about windows encased in mouldings of the purest late Gothic type were put Roman pilasters and an architrave. The houses of this mixed sort are among the most charming things that architecture in Germany can boast. Later, as knowledge of Italian art increased, the details became more correct, but the charm was no longer there. They were just like any other German *Nachahmungen*, spiritless and detestable. The one really exquisite work of the sixteenth century, the portico of the Rathhaus in Cologne, is a delightful combination of columns of the composite order with arches still pointed, with Gothic vaulting and roof. The houses that we admire in the old towns of the north are not to be compared to this portico, excepting as both apply the forms of a new art without slavish subserviency, and only just so far as they suit the purposes of the builder.

The gable was everywhere in Germany, and continued to be so during the whole period, the distinguishing feature of Renaissance architecture. A house with its long side towards the street, and with the rich dormer windows that play so beautiful a part in French construction of the period, is a great rarity. Instead of this, the gables are of a width and height that make them imposing, though, where ornament is abundant, it only too often detracts from rather than adds to the effect. Pinnacles, the too-pervasive scroll work—that even Lübke admits to be a weak side of German Renaissance art—and other clumsy and unmeaning devices, go far to spoil what would otherwise be noble. We have said that the sixteenth century merely took the gable as it found it, and turned it to its own uses; in Gothic art it was equally prominent and sometimes, especially in the regions towards the Baltic, filled in with pointed arch panels, it was really beautiful. Even then, however, it was not always a success; and in the Renaissance art, where the types became much more varied, there was by so much the greater chance of going wrong.

The eighteenth century did violence to all German traditions of building. The country had hitherto borrowed every style of architecture, Romanesque, Gothic, Renaissance, from some one or other of its neighbors, but had ended always by making them its own. German Gothic might be, and generally was, very bad, but there was at least no mistaking it for the Gothic of any other people; so with German Renaissance architecture—but the last century changed all that. Every German prince exhausted servility in trying to imitate Versailles and the two Trianons, and at the beginning of this century, when every little State had its Monplaisir, Monbijou, Monrepos, its Sans Souci or Ludwigslust, architecture had reached the lowest point of insignificance. Up to the war of 1870, the newer, the more pretentious streets of German towns were of an insipidity and ugliness that could hardly be matched in Europe. Not only had the gable been abandoned, but along with it every other feature that might in the least degree give character to a façade. The new Empire has, not unnaturally, gone to the other extreme. In the revived German Renaissance, the architects have too often tried to put every ornament that ever was invented upon one and the same house. Nothing is more common than to see a building possessing gables, dormers, porticoes, balconies, pinnacles, oriels, loggias, pilasters, and columns, and, if there be left room for anything else, it is somehow there. Of course there is no knowing what will remain after all this effervescence shall have subsided. We can only hope for the best. The volumes of Fritsch show abundantly that, in the epoch from which these architects draw their inspiration, there was more bad work than good. A comparison of what is done now with what was done then is, on the whole, far from discouraging.

Lübke, in the opening chapter of his 'Geschichte der deutschen Renaissance,' says:

"While the Romance lands, Italy and France, as well as Spain, are in no position to appropriate the great results of the ecclesiastical Reformation of Germany, it is on the contrary the fortune of Germany to receive energetic influences from the artistic Renaissance of Italy, and to unfold therefrom a new art, in which the southern sentiment of beauty is united to Teutonic depth and strength."

We may pardon this because it was written not long after the Franco-German war, when the gravest Germans indulged in a good deal of buncombe; but we cannot let it go without protest. Teutonic depth and strength may have united with a feeling for beauty to create the architecture of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, but that feeling for beauty was not in the least Italian or southern—it was as Teutonic as the depth and strength. The imagination of these men of the north has not the turn for grace, the sentiment of balance, clearness, proportion, and symmetry of the southern imagination. There is, by way of compensation, a feeling for picturesqueness, for the play of light and shade, an expression of dignity, that, at times, is touched with melancholy and becomes poetic. These are qualities that often make us forget the uncouthness of details, the absence of the plastic and more purely architectural gifts, in the suggestion of the magic that has woven legends and ballads, rude, even coarse on occasion, and then again warm with enthusiasm for beauty, for strength and nobility. Our admirations by no means always accord with the accredited ones. With regard to many of these—too many, in fact—we can but quote the criticism of Viollet-le-Duc on Nuremberg, found in his 'Lettres écrites d'Allemagne.' Nuremberg, he remarks by the way, is "une collection plutôt qu'une ville," and among its monuments "on a peine à trouver une de ces œuvres qui laissent un souvenir durable; on est souvent étonné, jamais ému; c'est toujours le dernier objet qui frappe le plus, et qui fait oublier les autres."

Life of Benjamin Harris Brewster, with Discourses and Addresses. By Eugene Coleman Savidge. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

THE author of this work has, so far as in him lay, faithfully complied with the maxim, *De mortuis nil nisi bonum*. Were we to accept his estimate we should find ourselves ranking Mr. Brewster with "Lincoln, Seward, Cameron, and Grant." He was "a man of letters among men of the world; dazzling scholars by his worldly position, politicians by his culture." The themes that he touched "are bestrewn with literary gems and rounded with philosophical reflection." This is not put forth as the opinion of a biographer: "it is a national tribute. The coronet unanimously accorded his work by those whose individual judgments make laws, bestow honors, or guide national opinions, must establish beyond cavil excellence in a sphere incapable of official degrees." As an orator he was "superb"; as a lawyer he was "of the noblest order"; in literature as well as law "his resources were marvellous"; his memory "was a marvel"; his conversational powers, moreover, were incomparable, his sympathy, magnanimity, and other good qualities were pre-eminent, and withal he was a very religious man. There may be found in his life "errors of judgment, mistaken impulses of a warm heart, apparent inconsistencies which are in truth but increased light and more matured reflection, and, perhaps, inconsistencies real and inexplicable. But search here is conceived to be no duty of the biographer."

With due respect to the memory of Mr. Brewster, we feel impelled to characterize the laudations of his biographer as rather extravagant. Among his contemporaries, and in his own surroundings, Mr. Brewster was a somewhat striking and picturesque figure; but he did nothing and said nothing that will cause his memory to live when the generation that knew him is gone. Nevertheless, he had some claims to distinction. He was of a good stock, being descended from Elder Brewster of the Plymouth Colony, and he showed a fine determination and courage in overcoming the obstacles that poverty and a face repulsively disfigured by burns laid in his path. Singularly enough, he invariably dressed in an old-fashioned and foppish style that made him extremely conspicuous. His head was surmounted by a white beaver hat, his feet were covered with patent-leather shoes and white gaiters, while his coat was of velvet, his trousers of some white or yellow material, his stock of a flaming color, and his shirt bosom adorned with ruffles. Similar ruffles of the finest lace took the place of cuffs, half covering his jewelled hands, and he carried his peculiar tastes into the appointments with which he surrounded himself. These affectations, however, did not lessen the charm of his conversation, which was due to his really remarkable memory and to his varied reading. He had an affectionate disposition, a kind heart, and withal a

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certain stubborn honesty that gave him such distinction as he attained, while it prevented his attaining the distinction of public office to which he aspired.

In the Dangerfield slave case in 1858, Mr. Brewster attained notoriety by the unnecessary vehemence with which he advocated the return of the fugitive negro to slavery, but he lived to admit that the abolitionists were in the right. As Attorney-General of the United States under President Arthur, he had much to do with the Star-route trials, but we cannot concur with Mr. Savidge in the belief that these proceedings will compare in importance with the trial of Warren Hastings. It should be said, however, that the lame and impotent conclusion of the matter was not due to any treachery on Mr. Brewster's part. He was sincere in his attempt to secure convictions, as is proved by the hostility of the persons implicated. But to the participants in that contest history will award no laurels. Mr. Brewster undoubtedly had a certain thirst for culture and an interest in elevated themes; but his tributes to learning and religion are rather of the chromo order. The fineness of his feeling in such matters will be judged by the fact that he was an intimate friend of Simon Cameron. He was perhaps somewhat better than his friends; but that is not to attribute to him anything more than a relative excellence.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, C. K. Christopher Columbus. [Makers of America.] Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Angel's Visits to my Farm in Florida. U. S. Book Co. $1.
Atkinson, Rev. J. C. Walks, Talks, Travels and Exploits of Two Schoolboys. New ed. Macmillan. $1.25.
Barhydt, J. D. Crayon Portraiture. The Baker & Taylor Co. $1.
Barr, Mrs. A. E. Love for an Hour is Love Forever. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Barr, Robert. In a Steamer Chair, and Other Shipboard Stories. Cassell. 50 cents.
Beardmore, W. L. The Drainage of Habitable Buildings. Macmillan. $1.50.
Bernhardt, Wilhelm. Goethe's Meisterwerke. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.60.
Bigelow, Poultney. The German Emperor. Charles L. Webster & Co. 75 cents.
Bradshaw, W. R. The Goddess of Atvatabar. J. F. Douthitt. $2.
Bunce, Mrs. O. B. What to Do. Appletons.
By a Himalayan Lake. Cassell. 50 cents.
Carlyle, Thomas. Wotton Reinfred. The Waverley Co. 50 cents.
Chapman, C. H. An Elementary Course in the Theory of Equations. John Wiley & Sons. $1.50.
Coleridge, Christabel R. Amethyst: the Story of a Beauty. Appletons.
Dod, S. B. A Highland Chronicle. Dodd, Mead & Co. 50 cents.
Gore, Prof. J. H. A German Science Reader. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Farrer, J. A. Paganism and Christianity. Henry Holt & Co. $1.75.
James, C. C. A Harmony of the Gospels. London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Lüders, C. H. The Dead Nymph, and Other Poems. Scribners. $1.25.
Maitland, James. The American Slang Dictionary. Chicago: The Author.
O'Rell, Max. English Pharisees and French Crocodiles. Cassell. $1.50.
Peacock, Mabel. Bunyan's Holy War, etc. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Sully, James. The Human Mind: A Text-Book of Psychology. 2 vols. Appletons.
Travis, Jeremiah. Commentaries on the Law of Sales, and Collateral Subjects. 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
White, T. W. Our English Homer; or, Shakspere Historically Considered. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; New York: Scribners. $2.25.
Whitman, Walt. Selected Poems. Charles L. Webster & Co. 75 cents.
Whymper, Edward. Travels Amongst the Great Andes of the Equator. Scribners.
Wilde, Oscar. A House of Pomegranates. Dodd, Mead & Co. $5.
Wood, Henry. God's Image in Man. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.
Worthington, Prof. A. M. Dynamics of Rotation. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
Wright, W. A. The Works of Shakspere. Vol. VI. Macmillan. $3.
Whiteley, R. L. Chemical Calculations. Longmans, Green & Co. 60 cents.

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